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PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE MAKING OF SCHOOL CURRICULA

BY FRANK M. MC MURRY

The following principles in regard to the making of curricula were originally drafted by the writer. After discussion and some slight modification they have been approved by a number of my colleagues specializing in widely different phases of education. It was thought that the extent of the agreement of this group would in itself be some indication of the validity of the proposals. The names of those subscribing to these proposals are as follows:

Henry Suzzallo, Professor of Educational Sociology.
George D. Strayer, Professor of Educational Administration.
Frederick G. Bonser, Associate Professor of Industrial Education.
William H. Kilpatrick, Associate Professor of Philosophy of Education.
Milo B. Hillegas, Associate Professor of Elementary Education.
Thomas H. Briggs, Associate Professor of Education.
Henry C. Pearson, Principal of the Horace Mann School.
Ernest Horn, Principal of the Speyer School.
Thomas D. Wood, Professor of Physical Education.
Charles H. Farnsworth, Associate Professor of Music.

I. General Point of View

1. There is a tendency for curriculum making to consist in the mere arbitrary selection of subject-matter, and for class room teaching to consist in the adaptation of this subject-matter to the purposes and conditions of instruction.

This conception largely exempts the curriculum maker from any requirement for skill in the application of fundamental educational theory, leaving that responsibility to the class teacher.

2. Curriculum making and teaching are, however, both responsible for adaptation of subject-matter to the purposes and conditions of instruction. They are related to each other as the earlier and later stages of one extended process.

a. As evidence of this fact, some experienced teachers and superintendents regard the curriculum as *equally* responsible with the teacher for the quality of instruction.

b. The great influence of the curriculum is shown by the fact that many portions of present curricula tend to *prevent* good instruction, even by good teachers.

c. A good curriculum is far more than a sum of fragments of knowledge, and far more than a mere outline of facts or topics; it is the raw material of knowledge, refined or converted into a form usable for educational purposes.

3. The ability shown in making a curriculum depends on the skill with which the principles governing that process are formulated and on the energy and skill with which such controlling ideas are actually applied.

a. Any person undertaking to make a curriculum should formulate the ideas controlling the process; otherwise he lacks standards for judging his own work.

b. The skill required involves much more than soundness of view and clearness of statement; it includes ability to conceive standards that are tangibly related on the one hand to the aims and principles of education, and on the other to effective procedure in making a curriculum.

4. The object of a curriculum—from the point of view of the teacher—is not merely to show her the crude subject-matter that her class should cover, but to show her that subject-matter

already subjected in a large way to the same aims and principles to which she will subject it in detail when she prepares it for treatment in class.

A good curriculum should inspire teachers (a) by keeping before them the large ideas—the aims and principles that control instruction; and (b) by making them conscious of the great help it gives them toward applying such aims and principles in class work.

II. Working Principles for Guidance in Making and Judging Curricula

1. The subject-matter for a curriculum should be selected from among those experiences that are related to life and are likely, owing to their intrinsic nature, to appeal to the pupils directly as worth while.

a. In acknowledgment of the first part of the above principle, much has been omitted during the last twenty years, both from arithmetic and from other subjects. For example: Many topics in grammar, many of the words in most spelling books, much of locational geography, many portion of history: and much still needs to be omitted.

b. The second part of the above principle requires that the curriculum make a direct appeal to the pupil. There are two reasons, in particular, for this demand:

(1) One great object of instruction is the inculcation of interests and purposes in pupils; consequently subject-matter must be chosen which is so closely connected with the projects and ambitions they are capable of cherishing, that it will tend to intensify and broaden their purposes in general.

(2) Another great object of instruction is to educate young people in the sense of values, to give them practice in weighing the varying values of ideas, so that they may be capable of good judgments; subject-matter that lacks worth in the eyes of pupils is evidently incapable of furnishing such practice.

c. The larger value of the subject-matter is not necessarily apparent to the pupil in advance; but appreciation of this value should develop as the study progresses.

2. At the present time the form of organization most worthy of emphasis for subject-matter that is primarily intellectual—and this covers at least the more significant part of each branch of study in the curriculum—is that of the *problem* accompanied by such data as are necessary for its solution. The desirable basis of organization for subject-matter involving for the most part the emotional element or motor activity, is some specific need or want; but it is a kind of want or need that makes us less conscious of the facts or intellectual processes that meet it than does the problem proper.

a. Experience shows that in the world at large, knowledge, tastes, and skills are most effectually acquired under the stimulus of particular problems or specific needs of some sort.

b. The scope of such problems—using the term here in the broader sense to cover the basis of organization for both kinds of subject-matter—must vary greatly; but the danger is that it will be too narrow. While it is true that needs often arise calling for single facts or simple reactions—such, for example, as a date in history, or the location of some city, or " I beg your pardon " when one accidentally treads upon another's toes—these minor needs generally occur also as incidents connected with much broader questions; and it is these larger issues that should form the units of instruction. Probably few problems should occupy less than a whole recitation, which entirely rules out isolated questions and facts; and many, like the problem of immigration, for instance, might well occupy a number of periods.

c. In general, sufficient data or activities of some kind should be furnished in the curriculum under each problem—or sufficient available sources indicated—to suggest a satisfactory solution. Otherwise, the curriculum may contain undesirable questions and require too much work from the teachers.

d. The subdivision of a study into " topics " is not necessarily eliminated by its organization under problems or needs; for these themselves must often be grouped under heads of some sort showing their scope and general character.

e. While the sequence of problems may vary widely, often ignoring the boundaries between conventional " studies," the

most feasible sequence for the present usually lies within one particular study. Under the usual organization of our schools it is advisable that knowledge, however originally acquired, should, especially in the upper years of the secondary school, be adjusted to the logical plan of the subject to which it most belongs; but there is a distinct tendency to extend upward the primary school practice of ignoring the artificial boundaries between subjects which in daily life are not ordinarily differentiated—for example, in the solution of problems in "general science" material is drawn from any source whatever.

f. While the principal organization of the subject-matter should take the form of problems or needs (i. e., should be psychological), the logical or scientific organization—which considers the relation of the parts of a study to one another rather than to the pupil—is also desirable ultimately for the sake of greater thoroughness of understanding. In some studies the logical organization should appear in the official curriculum. But it should be kept in mind that relationship of the subject-matter to the pupil's life is by far the more important demand.

3. The relative importance of subject-matter, determining its final admission into the curriculum and its relative prominence there, must depend mainly upon its relative importance in social life, and the pertinency of its relations to the purposes of the school.

a. This principle places new emphasis upon several subjects that have been included in the curriculum, but greatly neglected, such, for instance, as music, fine arts, handwork, and games. These subjects are often called fads by the public, merely because it fails to realize that the curriculum should reflect the real values in life.

b. This principle also requires the introduction of much new matter into many curricula; for example, investments, life insurance, and the economic value of good roads, in arithmetic; protection from many common diseases, in hygiene; and care of the soil, in geography.

c. Formal processes, in general, such as those in arithmetic, and formal facts, such as the boundaries of states and

dates in history, for example, should appear in the curriculum subordinated to the situations that call for them.

4. The curriculum should make important provision for easy control over knowledge on the parts of pupils.

a. To this end, much overlapping of problems is desirable, so that facts may be frequently reviewed from different points of view.

b. The logical classification or organization of facts is of much importance as furnishing points of view quite different from those suggested by the psychological organization.

c. The studies should be so correlated with one another that the problems in one will call for facts in some other; and these cross relations should receive mention in the curriculum.

5. Since every child differs more or less from every other in native endowment, past experience, and present environment, the curriculum should be so arranged as to be in the highest degree adaptable to each pupil.

a. The customary grading of subject-matter according to the age of pupils is an acknowledgment of this principle and one important step toward its realization.

b. Separate curricula for city and country schools, as planned in Massachusetts in recent years, is a further acknowledgment of the same principle.

c. While the major part of the curriculum may be uniform for all children, it is easy to show that there should be many points of difference in curricula of different schools in a large system. For example, the nature study, home geography, and games should vary much, according to the locality; the literature, music, and cooking should differ in some respects according to nationality; and the handwork, according to personal preferences and determined needs of pupils. It is probable that careful surveys of the local factors that should affect the curricula of different schools would show the differences among them to be far greater than they are usually imagined.

d. Since children must be taught in classes, the smallest unit for which subject-matter may be planned is the class, and the smallest unit for which a curriculum, covering eight

grades, may be prepared is an individual school. The ideal arrangement would be to have a curriculum differing in some respects for each school; and only insurmountable administrative difficulties should be allowed to prevent the realization of this ideal.

III. Conclusions Resulting from the Preceding Principles, and Practical Suggestions

1. Concerning Surveys

Since the curriculum is to be composed of such facts as are necessary for the meeting of specific difficulties, or the solving of particular problems in the lives of pupils, much care must be taken to determine what difficulties or problems are vital, and what local conditions must influence the selection of them and of the data that can best meet them. To this end, surveys are necessary that should meet several requirements:

a. They should list the problems—local, national, and international—that are deemed especially significant in each branch of study.

b. They should bring to light the leading characteristics of the children concerned, as shown by nationality, home conditions, native endowment, etc.

c. They should likewise discover the leading points of strength and weakness of the teachers, since their abilities and tastes should affect the choice of problems. Special knowledge or ignorance of nature study by a teacher, for example, would determine the amount of emphasis on the subject.

d. They should list the equipment in text-books, maps, and other materials, and the facilities for construction, games, etc., that are available.

2. The Problem as Guide for the Determination of Subject-Matter

The content of any curriculum, as has already been stated, must be determined by a consideration of the demands of society on the one hand, and of child nature, on the other. These demands may usually be conceived as embodied in problems, the solutions of which call for certain auxiliary data. The data so got must furnish the fact content of the curriculum.

In times past such a basis for the selection of facts has often been wanting, with the result that our existing curricula are loaded down with irrelevant facts. What should be taught about the Civil War, for example? Should the rivers of Mexico be included in a study of that country? We cannot answer such questions in advance of a consideration of the problems pertinent to these topics. Possibly one-third of the subject-matter now taught should be eliminated, and possibly one-third of what we should have, has not as yet been included in the curriculum. The problems, however, that are to be solved in any case must form our chief guide for the selection of appropriate subject-matter.

3. Concerning the Influence of the Local Environment

Since the greater part of the problems which are to fix the subject-matter of a curriculum are not peculiarly local, the subject-matter of one elementary school should duplicate that of others to a considerable degree, possibly to the extent of two-thirds or three-fourths of its entire content. In this way, what is called a uniform minimum curriculum may be a useful conception.

It must be clearly understood, however, that the local element peculiar to the individual school is not a mere addendum,—an afterthought as it were,—to be mechanically fastened to the "uniform minimum curriculum." The local conditions—including the community characteristics, the geographical environment, the characteristics of the children and teachers and the material equipment of a particular school—will of themselves suggest many problems and will affect the emphasis and coloring of many others. And this local influence must come neither after the common content has been found, nor necessarily at the beginning of the entire procedure. It is an influence which must be taken into account from the start, and must make itself felt continuously throughout the process.

4. Concerning Method of Procedure

The task of selecting vital social problems as the centre of organization, and of organizing the subject-matter of the curriculum about them, is so great an undertaking that it can be

accomplished only very slowly, and no single system of schools can hope to perform it properly alone.

a. The necessary method of procedure is to modify the present curriculum piecemeal, as opportunity offers, encouraging those schools that are most capable of doing so, to lead in the work.

b. The purpose to be particularly emphasized is that a curriculum is to be adapted to a particular school; the schools where such a purpose actively determines the effort must be regarded as experimental centres.

c. Those who must perform the major part of this task for a given school must be the ablest persons directly connected with that school, i. e., some of the teachers, interested and informed members of the community, the principal and other supervisory officers; because they are the only ones who can possibly have the knowledge and interest for the task.

d. Such experimental centres should be sources of suggestion for other schools. And the latter should follow and supplement such suggestions according to their ability and energy—subject, like the experimental centres themselves, to the higher school authorities.

e. There are no insurmountable administrative difficulties in this proposed arrangement.

(1) Since the larger part of the curriculum of one school will substantially duplicate that of another, the transfer of pupils need not offer serious difficulties. The ability of a pupil to get on in a new school, anyway, depends more upon his capacity for work, as shown in his method of study, than upon his knowledge of particular facts.

(2) Uniform examinations for promotion—if they are deemed necessary—would need to include some optional questions and, perhaps, to show other adaptations. But such demands are entirely legitimate; mere administrative convenience is a small matter in this connection. School administration, in general, is to be judged by the extent to which it furthers educational ends, not by the extent to which it provides for its own ease.

5. Concerning the Content of Curriculum and Syllabi

In order that they may meet the conditions above prescribed, the printed curriculum and syllabi must have a much greater content than has been customary. They should, at least, include the following:

a. A formulation of the principles that shall control the selection and organization of matter. This is necessary in order that all participants may have a common point of view.
b. For a similar reason, a formulation of the special principles that shall guide in selecting the matter for each study.
c. The topics in each study, the problems under them—some prescribed, some alternative, and some optional—and the leading facts necessary for solving the problems or, at least, the chief sources for such data.
d. Such suggestions about further adaptations of subject-matter as may seem advisable.
e. The time allotment for the various branches, together with suggestions about particular conditions that might affect such allotment.

PRINCIPLES FOR MAKING AND JUDGING CURRICULA IN GEOGRAPHY

BY FRANK M. MC MURRY

The following special guiding principles are an interpretation for geography of the general principles for making and judging curricula given in the preceding article:

1. It is undesirable to begin geography, as a regular subject of study, before the fourth year of school, and it may well end with the seventh school year.

2. The usual plan of covering the field twice, in large part, in the elementary school, is justifiable.

3. Only such subject-matter should be accepted as comes fairly within the definition of geography.

4. Home geography is a necessary basis for study of distant regions and should constitute the first division of the subject.

a. Its scope should be as wide as possible, in order to secure the fullest possible basis of real experience for the interpretation of distant conditions.

b. Its content should vary greatly according to locality.

5. Some geographical concepts not illustrated in the home environment should usually be treated, before the systematic study of distant regions is undertaken.

Possible examples: mountain, river, harbor, factory.

a. The reason for not delaying the treatment of these concepts until they are called for in later instruction is that the detailed study which they require tends then to be looked upon, by both teachers and pupils, as too serious an interruption of the regular work.

b. Much use of stereoscopic views, lantern slides, and motion pictures is desirable in such instruction, and considerable time should, therefore, be set aside for it.

6. Geography should be divided into such topics or heads as are most commonly used when reference is had to various regions; in other words, social custom should largely fix the division.

a. This division for home geography might be, for instance, valleys, hills and mountains, rivers, transportation, etc.

b. In the United States it might be the Eastern States, the South, the Central States, the Pacific Coast States.

c. In foreign countries it is political, so far as the Great Powers are concerned. And it is, also, political, so far as the more prominent lesser powers are concerned; such, for example, as Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and China.

d. Africa, Western Asia, and South Eastern Europe, instead of being treated mainly under political divisions, should be considered chiefly in their relation to the Great Powers. Islands, in general, should receive similar treatment.

e. In South America, Argentina and Chile should be studied as a unit; Brazil (with Uruguay and Paraguay) as a second unit. The other countries of South America might well be treated as a whole, but only so far as recent problems have associated them with the United States.

7. The subject-matter included under each of the above topics should be organized under specific problems.

a. Such problems are especially needed in geography as a basis for selection and elimination of details. For example, far more places are located than would be, if definite problems were made the basis of choice. Also, it is customary to consider the average temperature and the average rainfall of various regions, when the quantity of rainfall during the season of growth, and the extremes of temperature, are really the important questions.

b. Locations, surface features, climate, industries, transportation, etc., should receive attention only so far as is necessary in the solution of the problems proposed. The customary organization under the above heads not only involves much waste, but it leads to bad mental habits by accustoming young people to ignore relative values.

c. But *after* treatment by "problems" the leading facts regarding the Great Powers, the continents, some of the physiographic and product units (wheat regions, for example) may well be organized under location, surface features, etc., for the sake of the greater thoroughness secured by review from such new viewpoints.

d. Yet the organization under which the subject-matter should be approached by the pupil, and that under which it should be, in the main, retained, should be the functional (problematic).

e. As far as possible, such problems should be chosen as are representative or typical of other regions.

f. The United States should be used as a means of approach and basis of comparison in the study of other countries.

g. The two treatments of the field of geography should differ from each other chiefly in the character of the problems under which the subject-matter is organized. The heads into which the field is divided might well be the same in the two cases.

8. General geography, treating particularly of latitude, longitude, and standard time; winds and rain; ocean movements and their effects; distribution of temperature; and plants, animals and peoples of the earth, should not be massed in one place for their main study.

a. Latitude, longitude, and standard time should receive their principal treatment in direct connection with the United States.

b. The principal winds, rains, and ocean currents affecting each portion of the earth and whatever needs to be said about plants, animals and people, should mainly be studied in connection with the regions where they are of special importance. Then, after all parts of the earth have been covered, the leading facts bearing on these topics should be summarized and systematized in a very brief time.

c. The distribution of temperature as shown by isothermal lines should be omitted from the elementary school curriculum. Also the explanation of the cause of the seasons; both subjects are too difficult for children of this age.

9. The curriculum should usually be presented independently of any particular text.

a. The treatment should, if possible, be broader than that found in any particular text.

b. Text-books do not sufficiently organize matter under problems.

A CURRICULUM ON MEXICO

BY FRANK M. MC MURRY

The first part of the following article is a somewhat detailed treatment of Mexico, suggesting the kind of work the curriculum maker must do in preparation for making a curriculum. The curriculum for Mexico that follows (pp. 30-32) is a direct outgrowth of this preliminary study.

Area and Population

Mexico, just south of the United States, has an area of 767,000 square miles, which is about one-fourth that of our own country. In population, it is our most important neighbor, having 14,000,000 inhabitants, or about twice as many as Canada, although only one-seventh of our own number.

Our Relations with Mexico

Connection by Land and Water. The boundary line between the United States and Mexico is 1,833 miles long. Several important towns in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California are located on this line or very near to it, and their prosperity is very dependent upon the conditions that prevail across the border. This line is crossed by four railroads that connect us with the principal cities of Mexico, including the capital, Mexico City, well toward the south. The principal harbors on the east coast, Vera Cruz and Tampico, are less than 1,000 miles by water from the mouth of the Mississippi River, and Acapulo, on the west coast, is the first important harbor south of California. The Tehauntepec railroad, crossing Mexico at its narrowest part, which is only 140 miles wide, has been much used for transferring goods from one ocean to the other, for example, sugar from the Hawaiian Islands to New York, and it will be one of the principal rivals of the Panama Canal.

Our Trade with Mexico. The principal countries of Europe with which Mexico trades extensively are Great Britain, Germany, and France. But she imports a greater quantity of goods from the United States than from all other countries combined, and she also sells more goods to the United States than to all other countries.

Our Investments There. Our interests in the mines of Mexico amount to many millions of dollars; and in recent years many more millions have been invested by our citizens in rubber, coffee and fruit plantations, and other undertakings. For example, in 1911-1912 there were eighty-nine companies interested in the Mexican oil fields. Their total investment amounted to $35,000,000, of which $20,000,000 had come from the United States alone.

Our Special Interest in Recent Years. The above facts show how closely connected we are with Mexico. But during recent years, the Monroe Doctrine has caused an especially active interest in Mexican affairs on our part.

According to that doctrine, European countries are practically forbidden by the United States to interfere by force in the affairs of countries in the New World, and thereby, possibly, to extend their possessions in this hemisphere. That places a great responsibility upon us for preserving order throughout the two Americas, at least to the extent of satisfying the just demands of European nations.

During the last four years our government has been called upon to meet that responsibility. For within that time there have been several violent changes, or revolutions, in the Mexican government, and the end is not yet in sight. Rights of foreigners, both of the United States and European countries, have been infringed upon or quite ignored; some foreign property has been destroyed; and foreign residents have even been murdered. Our problem is to determine what should be done by us. Should we send enough troops down there to conquer the country and preserve order, thus really taking over the government of the entire nation? Or would that be a task far too expensive and difficult, and wholly inadvisable, no matter how easy and cheap?

The decision involves the consideration of numerous factors, among the most important of which are the following:

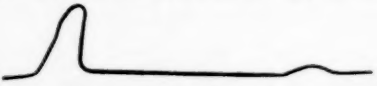
1. The character of the country: is its climate agreeable and healthy, and are all of its parts easily reached?
2. The nature of the people: are they of one race, or many? Do they have good schools, and are the people of reliable character? What kind of government have they, and what have been its tendencies, as shown in their history?
3. The relation of the inhabitants to one another: have they a common language and religion? Do they live in close touch and harmony with one another, aided by good roads, and by laws that secure equality among them?
4. Their occupations and manner of life: what are the leading occupations, and are the conditions such as to make the people prosperous and contented?
5. The possibilities of industrial progress, and its benefits: are the physical resources capable of great development? Are there excellent opportunities for the investment of foreign capital? And what might be the benefits of such progress both for the Mexicans and for us?

These are some of the questions that must be carefully considered by our own government in determining what shall be done in regard to intervention. We shall consider them in detail.

1. Character of the Country

Its Latitude and the Temperature that Might Be Expected. The most northern boundary of Mexico lies only a little farther north than Jacksonville, Florida, and the Tropic of Cancer crosses the country a little north of its central part. Thus it is seen that its latitude suggests a very mild or subtropical climate even in the northern part, and a tropical climate for the larger part of the country.

Why Most of the Country has not a Tropical Temperature. A large part of Mexico, however, has a much cooler temperature than these facts suggest. The reason is that much of the land is very high. The cordillera of western United States extend far into Mexico and most of the interior is a plateau more than a mile in height. Its highest part is its southern section,

about Mexico City, which is 8,000 feet in altitude. The east and west margins of this plateau are in many places a mile or more higher still, owing to the fact that mountain ranges extend along their margins. A cross section drawing from east to west across the country near the Tropic of Cancer takes, therefore, somewhat this form West  East. There are mountains and mountain ranges elsewhere also upon the plateau, some of them crossing it and breaking it into various sections. Not far south of Mexico City there is a chain of magnificent volcanoes extending southeast-northwest. One of these, Orizaba, has an altitude of 18,200 feet; another, Popocatepetl, 17,888 feet. The peaks of these mountains, in spite of their location in the torrid zone, are always covered with snow.

There is, however, a good deal of low land. On the east and west coasts, on each side of the plateau, is a strip of low coastal plain averaging thirty to forty miles in width. And south of the chain of volcanoes mentioned above, much of the land is low, spreading out into a very broad plain in Yucatan. While the temperature is usually very agreeable upon the highland, these low plains have a torrid heat at all times.

THE RAINFALL. The extreme northern part, as far south as the 28° parallel of latitude, is arid like that portion of United States just north of it. Toward the south the rainfall along the east coast gradually increases and the southern part of the country receives an abundance of rain, making the hot lowlands very humid and unhealthy. But the western coast is arid, and the rainfall on much of the plateau is so small that crops are uncertain even with the aid of irrigation. The rain that does fall, however, comes in the most desirable part of the year, i. e., from May to October; the remainder of the year constitutes the dry season.

EFFECTS OF ABOVE FACTS ON THE RIVERS. It is plain that rivers rising in the interior and flowing in a more or less direct line to the coast are necessarily very short, compared with our large rivers. Many of them, too, carry little water, owing to the slight fall of rain. Even the Rio Grande (meaning large river), which forms the northern boundary line, often dries up

in places. Since the rivers necessarily have many falls and rapids in their courses from the plateau to the narrow coastal plains, they are of little use for navigation, except in their lower parts; and even there many of them are useless owing to silt and other debris which collect at their mouths. The rivers being of little use for navigation; the lowlands being swampy in many parts, and the plateau being lofty and mountainous in part, it is plain that it is very difficult to reach many parts of the country unless a system of wagon roads and railways is highly developed.

2. Nature of the People

Mixture of Races. According to the official census about one person in five (19%) is white, which means chiefly of Spanish descent, two in five (43%) are of mixed blood, i. e., white and Indian, called Mestizos; and the other two out of five are full blooded Indians. The number of pure whites, however, is probably considerably less than one in five, for all the Mestizos desire to be considered white, and there is no distinct color line like that which in United States separates blacks from whites. In United States a person who has one-eighth or one-sixteenth negro blood is classed as a negro, whereas, in Mexico those who have such a slight mixture of Indian blood and appear to be white are classed as if they were of pure Spanish descent.

Education. Four out of five of the inhabitants (84%) can neither read nor write. On paper the country has a good educational system, and according to the law all children are obliged to go to school. As a matter of fact, however, the schools are few and poor. Out of nearly 3,000,000 children of school age only about 600,000 actually attend school, and then, often, only a very short time each year, under poor teachers.

Character. The Indians, those of mixed blood, and the whites have each rather clear characteristics that distinguish them from the others. The Indians, for example, are on the whole, a stolid people, fairly honest, but lacking in energy, and working only when necessity compels them. Those of mixed blood are quicker in mind, as a rule, but less trustworthy. They are pleasure-loving and easily excited; and they find it hard to persist in anything that requires steady application. The whites are generally the most efficient of the three; yet they can hardly be called

progressive as a class, and new white immigrants are usually found to be more energetic than those whose ancestors have lived in Mexico for many years.

GOVERNMENT. Their kind of government furnishes many suggestions about the character of the people. Nominally Mexico is governed in almost the same way as the United States, under a constitution adopted in 1857. The republic contains twenty-seven states, two territories, and one federal district, in which is Mexico City, the seat of government. It has a president, elected for four years, and a congress composed of a senate and a house of representatives.

Each state has its own legislature and governor, and the relation of each state to the central government is like that in the United States, except that the states are not all equal, some, like Yucatan, having special privileges.

But in actual practice, the government of Mexico is very unlike that of the United States. Revolutions and dictatorships are frequent; indeed, a great part of the time the government is in the hands of revolutionists or a dictator. In spite of the constitution, it seems hard for the Mexicans to conduct a government unless the power is concentrated in the hands of one man, as was the case for many years under Diaz.

Corruption in office is not only more common than in most other countries, but it is regarded with less disapproval. Again, the Mexican soldier does not usually fight from patriotic motives, but with a view to personal gain. He may be under the banner of the government one week, and deserting, cast his fortunes with a revolutionary band, the next.

HISTORY. In the following short outline of the history of Mexico (largely quoted) the treatment of the natives by the Spanish suggests much about the ideals of the small dominant class, the Spanish, until 1823, when independence was declared. The history from that date to 1876, when Diaz became President—during which long period there was a revolution almost every year—shows the turbulent tendencies of the people. The character of Diaz's administration, and the events since his withdrawal, furnish a valuable basis for judging the possibilities of that people for proper self-government now.

The Aztecs, with whom the Spaniards came into contact at the time of their invasion of Mexico, were not the first inhabitants of the country. Records of earlier peoples are somewhat hazy, but taken with the remains of former civilization point clearly to at least two occupancies of the country before the Aztecs came. In the tenth century, according to tradition, tribes known as the Toltecs arrived in the valley of Mexico, where they built great cities and practiced various arts. It is with the Toltecs that the legends of Quetzalcoatl, the " fair god," are connected. They prospered for only a little over a century, according to the native historians, for disease and famine had reduced them sadly in numbers and in vigor before the arrival of the Chichimecs, who speedily became the dominant race.

In the thirteenth or fourteenth century the Aztecs, wandering down from the region that is now New Mexico and Arizona, sought a home in the Mexican valley, but were refused admittance by the Chichimecs. At length they took refuge on the islands and swamps of Lake Texoco, where in time they built up cities and a civilization of their own. By the end of the fourteenth century they had gained the supremacy over other tribes, and when the first Montezuma was crowned king of the Aztecs in 1436 or 1437 a really powerful realm had been founded.

Into this Aztec empire Cortez led his Spanish forces in 1519, and by August, 1521, he had captured the City of Mexico and dethroned the last of the Aztec rulers. New Spain, as it was called after it came under Spanish rule, attracted many Spaniards who had heard tales of fabulous wealth to be found there. It was governed by viceroys, who made no pretense at ruling for the good of the subject people and who exploited the colony to replenish the Spanish treasury. The spirit of revolt against Spanish oppression was a slow growth through almost three centuries, for it was not until early in the nineteenth century that it showed itself really active. In 1810 a parish priest, Hidalgo, stirred up an insurrection, but though he was successful at the outset, he was within a year captured and executed. The rebellion was not put down, however, and there were constant outbreaks until, in 1821, Mexican independence was secured. Iturbide, the leader in the last successful insurrection, had himself proclaimed emperor, but the majority of the leaders of public

opinion favored a republic, and Iturbide was forced to resign in 1823. The next year the Mexican Republic was proclaimed, with a constitution modeled on that of the United States.

The political history of Mexico for the next half century or more was stormy. Almost never was a president allowed to take his office quietly after election or to hold it for the full term. Santa Anna for many years dominated the government though he never served as president. Texas declared its independence in 1835, and in the next year forced Mexico to recognize it; and when, in 1846, the United States agreed to the annexation of Texas, disputes over the boundary led to war between the two peoples. In this struggle Mexico, though possessed of an excellent fighting force, was at a great disadvantage because of internal dissensions; little efficiency, indeed, could be expected from a nation which had twelve presidents within two years. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which was signed in 1848, gave to the United States Texas, New Mexico, and Upper California, and provided for the payment to Mexico of $15,000,000.

The next event of importance in Mexican history was the adoption in 1857 of a new constitution, which is still in force. Four years later a declaration that Mexico would suspend payment on foreign loans led to the invasion of the country by the French, who in 1863 declared Mexico an empire and placed Maximilian of Austria on the throne. The new ruler reached Mexico in 1864, but the French gave him little real support, and in 1867 his government was overthrown and he himself was put to death. The Republic was once more proclaimed, and Juarez was made president, remaining in office until his death, five years later.

In 1876 Porfirio Diaz usurped the presidency, and was the next year confirmed in the office. According to a law which decreed that a president could not succeed himself, Diaz did not receive the election in 1880, but four years later was again made president, and held office continually until 1911. During this period there was comparative peace in Mexico. Diaz ruled almost autocratically, but the country needed a firm government. He did his utmost to develop the resources of the state, to promote manufactures, improve education and introduce a sound financial system. In most of his undertakings he succeeded very well,

and Mexico held a position in the eyes of the world which it had never held before. In 1911, however, there was an insurrection which assumed such proportions that it finally led to the retirement of Diaz. Francisco Madero, the leader in the revolution, was made president, but two years later another revolt occurred, and Madero was deposed and put to death. Huerta, the leader in this new rising, was originally a supporter of Madero, but declared himself disgusted with his inefficiency. Huerta himself was made president by Congress until a general election should be held.

3. Relation of Inhabitants to One Another

Language. Spanish is the language of the educated people, yet scores of other languages are spoken. Some are used by only a few people, and are scarcely more than dialects; but there are at least seventeen distinct families of languages as different as English is from Russian.

Religion. The prevailing religion is Roman Catholic. But among the Indians many of those who nominally profess to be Roman Catholic are really pagan and preserve their ancient religious customs. Some have never even nominally accepted Christianity. Among the latter are the people of Tiburon Island in the Gulf of California. They are so savage that few white men have ever visited there. It has been asserted that they are cannibals; but that is doubtful.

Roads and Railways. The lack of railways and wagon roads is a serious obstacle to unity among the people. While there are several important railroads connecting the principal cities—amounting to 16,000 miles of track in all (there were 242,000 miles in U. S. in 1912)—there are great numbers of towns and villages, and great areas of the country, where there is no rail route. And away from the big cities there are not even wagon roads, only paths or trails. The common method of travel is on horseback, or more often on the back of mule and donkey or burro, and goods are largely carried on the back of these animals. It follows that newspapers and letters seldom reach many large regions, and that the people in one such section have little contact with those in another section.

Social Distinctions. Socially there is little distinction according to color in Mexico. While the whites are the best educated and the Indians the poorest, a pure Indian or a Mestizo who shows ability and character is able to rise to any position, and the best families are willing to intermarry with his children. Some of Mexico's greatest heroes, such as Juarez, a former president of the Republic, have been pure Indians.

Effects of Mountains. Two facts have had a very great influence on the relation of portions of the inhabitants to one another. One of these facts is the mountainous character of much of the country. Mountain walls easily separate one people from another into tribes, so that they grow further and further apart in customs, speech, and sympathies. That accounts largely for the great number of languages in Mexico. It helps to account, also, for lack of unity among the people, for misunderstandings, and positive hatred. Many of the tribes of Indians distrust one another and all the rest of the population. One tribes has a proverb that Mexicans smell like pigs and Americans like coffee, both of which things they much dislike.

Land Legislation. The other fact greatly affecting the relations of the people has been the legislation touching the ownership of land. When Cortez conquered Mexico the Spanish government granted him a whole province for a garden. Since that time the possession of the land has fallen more and more into the hands of a few men. During the last twenty years of Diaz's regime the open cattle ranges were absorbed by them; then the communal fields about the towns, the village commons, and finally many small farms that had been held for generations by one family. In 1896 a law was passed permitting the denunciation of all property in the republic that was not secured by a legal title. Very many of the owners of property could not read or write and knew nothing about legal titles, although they or their ancestors had occupied such property for ages. Such people were evicted, and nothing was left for them other than to become practically slaves, peons, on the estates of the landed aristocracy. As many as five hundred or even a thousand families have thus collected to labor on one large estate, with no possibility of having property of their own. Some of these

estates include from one million to three million acres, and the largest almost equals the state of Connecticut in area.

This arrangement has brought the people more and more into two classes, i. e., the wealthy landowners, few in number, and the peons. There is scarcely a middle class. And, while the mountainous country, together with lack of roads, has tended to disunite the people, this relationship tends still more to establish discontent and dislike among those in close contact with each other.

4. Leading Occupations and Manner of Life of the People

Mining. (a) silver. The one thing above all others that attracted the Spaniards to Mexico was its precious metals, especially silver. During the four centuries since the time of Cortez, it has produced as much silver as all the rest of the world, and today the annual output is worth about $60,000,000. If a line be drawn from Oazaca in the south to Mexico City and then northwestward through Guanajuato to Chihuahua in the northwest, it will run through the middle of the silver-bearing region. The most valuable mines are near Guanajuato, about 200 miles northwest of Mexico City.

(b) other minerals. Quantities of other metals are found in Mexico, including gold, copper, lead and zinc. A large amount of iron is known to exist in several parts of the country. Half way between Mexico City and Chihuahua, near the city of Durango, there is a mountain that seems to be composed almost entirely of rich iron ore. Recently, also, great quantities of petroleum have been discovered on the lowland near the coast, as in Texas and Louisiana. Coal is not wanting, either. In fact, there are fine deposits of anthracite in Sonora, the most northerly state, and also in Michoacan and Oaxaca. More than one-half of all the exports of Mexico are minerals.

(c) obstacles to mining. Many of these rich mineral deposits have thus far, however, been very little mined, for several reasons. One is a lack of railroads and good wagon roads for transportation of goods. On that account, it is difficult to get coal, machinery, and other supplies to the mines; also to transport the ores to convenient places for smelting. The old-fash-

ioned methods of mining are a second serious obstacle; and the want of capital to carry on the work, a third.

AGRICULTURE. (a) ON THE PLATEAU. So much of the plateau is arid that large areas are suited only to grazing. For that reason ranching is one of the leading industries on the highland. Cattle and sheep are most common, 20,000 or 30,000 animals sometimes belonging to a single hacienda or ranch. It is in this section where some of the greatest estates are found.

Where irrigation is possible, and further south where rains are abundant, the most common products are wheat, corn, potatoes, and beans. Much fruit, also, is produced, particularly apples, pears, peaches, and grapes.

Another important plant of the relatively dry regions is the agave or century plant. On the plateau, especially around Mexico City, enormous quantities are raised. When their great rosettes, often with leaves eight or ten feet long, are ready to send up the single, huge flower stalk which each plant produces before dying, the great bud is cut off. The sap runs out from the cut for months, and is collected daily. After it has fermented for twenty-four hours it forms a slightly alcoholic drink called "pulque," the national drink of Mexico. Every day pulque trains run into Mexico City, much as milk trains run into our cities. If kept more than a day or two, the beverage sours and acquires a nauseating smell. But the people drink it freely, and distil from it the still more intoxicating drink called "mescal." These liquors cause much drunkenness, and the fact that they are very cheap makes the result worse than otherwise.

(b) ON THE SLOPES, BETWEEN PLATEAU AND COASTAL PLAIN. East and west of the plateau, between it and the coastal plain, there is a region from 1,000 to 3,000 feet in altitude formed in great part by the debris from the neighboring mountain slopes. These lands are noted for their great fertility and the consequent luxuriance of their vegetation. Here much coffee is cultivated, and some sixty million pounds of it are exported each year. Tobacco and cotton are other important crops.

(c) ON THE LOWLANDS. On the damp, hot lowlands some of the principal products are rice, sugar cane, beans, tobacco, and corn, corn yielding two or even three crops per year. Also

tropical fruits are cultivated in great abundance, such as oranges, lemons, pineapples, and bananas. The production of rubber is becoming an important industry, many large plantations having been planted with rubber trees in recent years.

Another species of agave, called henequen or sisal, is grown in Yucatan. Its long fibres make the best kind of twine for use in the harvest fields of the United States. Fibres are second in importance among the exports of Mexico.

MANNER OF LIFE OF THE PEOPLE. (a) IN THE CITIES. Mexico City, the capital, is the only large city in Mexico, having about a third of a million inhabitants. The other principal cities range in population from 15,000 to 100,000, and there are not more than a score of these. Mexico City is, therefore, the centre of Mexico, much as Paris is the centre of France. Being on a plateau of full 7,000 feet above the level of the sea, the climate is cool. It has many beautiful buildings, and the life is varied. One of the interesting sights is that of the hundreds of Indians who come in on foot from the country at a little dog trot with big baskets on their heads or strung over their backs and held by a strap around the forehead.

One of the striking differences between these cities and those in the United States is found in the absence of numerous large factories there. While there are some, their number is small, and a very large share of the manufacturing is done by hand, or in very small factories. The most popular sport is bull-fighting.

(b) IN THE COUNTRY. The great majority of the inhabitants till the soil. Their methods are generally crude, being a mixture of ancient Aztec customs and those introduced by the Spaniards centuries ago. One still sees the wooden plow which barely scrapes the ground, and the clumsy wooden-wheeled cart drawn by oxen.

The food of the common people is chiefly made up of Indian corn, beans, red peppers, and a kind of tomato. The corn is usually boiled in lye and ground between stones by the women. The coarse flour thus produced is baked into "tortillas," about the size and thickness of the pancake, and equally soggy when cold. The beans are boiled. These two dishes are eaten at

almost every meal by the poorer people, and they have little else much of the time. Their houses have but one story, and are commonly built of sundried bricks, or adobes, held together by layers of mud or mortar. Often there is only one room, the roof being made of brush and the floor being earth or stone. In this one room the whole family cook, eat, and sleep. The most suggestive single statement about the mass of people is one which has occasionally appeared in our newspapers during the last year, and seems to have much truth in it; it is that, while active warfare has been waged in Mexico during the last three years, as many as 11,000,000 out of the 14,000,000 inhabitants have not yet heard that there is a war. People in that state of ignorance can hardly be called prosperous, and where the ignorance is considerably less dense, the discontent, due to a lack of hope, is active.

5. Possibilities of Progress; and Its Benefits to Us

Yet there are great possibilities of progress. In spite of its southern location, much of the country has a temperate climate, such as is favorable to energy in human beings. The country is rich in minerals,—coal and iron ore as well as precious metals,—and with the help of abundant capital, the mining industry is capable of enormous development leading directly, too, to the extensive development of allied manufactures. The great variety of climate, together with an extremely fertile soil, ensures a great variety of farm products, several of which, particularly rice, sugarcane, coffee, rubber, tropical fruits, and the fibre producing agave, are plants that we greatly need, while we produce them in comparatively small quantities, or not at all.

Meanwhile such development would call for large imports into Mexico of mining and farm machinery, steel rails, clothing, etc. And since we are richly supplied with such products and are so near at hand, they would be purchased from the United States. Thus both our import and export trade might be much stimulated.

The one material help necessary for such growth is foreign capital; the Mexicans lack capital. But the fact that the opportunities are recognized by capitalists both here, in Canada, and in Europe, is proved by the investments made there by foreigners in recent years, particularly in the mining industries.

including petroleum; and in coffee, sugar, and rubber plantations. They have also aided greatly in the development of railroads, irrigation systems and other public works, as well as in manufacturing. For example, a great drainage scheme for draining the southern lakes of the Valley of Mexico; the improvement of the harbor of Vera Cruz; and the construction of the Tehuantepec Railway, were all the work of one English firm of contractors.

Our Problem in Regard to Mexico

The question that our government has been forced to consider is that of armed intervention in Mexico either alone or in connection with other powers. Many Americans have urged intervention on one or more of the following grounds:

(1) It is intolerable that a country so large and populous as Mexico, bordering our own states for 1,833 miles, and so closely connected with us otherwise, should be in a continuous state of disorder. It is a constant menace to peace in our own country.

(2) The material prosperity of the Mexicans, as well as of ourselves, requires that the United States establish a government there that will favor, by its stable character, the development of the country's industries. The Mexicans can never do it themselves.

(3) The Monroe Doctrine places directly upon our government the responsibility of establishing and preserving peace in Mexico. Either we must do this—by armed intervention, since no other method has secured it—or abandon the Monroe Doctrine and allow other countries a free hand in protecting their interests there.

In opposition to these views, many persons have urged the following facts:

(1) The area of the country, 767,000 square miles, or six times that of the Philippine Islands, is so great that a vast army would be needed to conquer it in all its parts. The mountainous character of much of the plateau, with its unnavigable rivers, its few railroads and almost no wagon roads, makes the task especially difficult; and the tropical heat of the swampy lowlands would further render it dangerous.

(2) The character of the people; the mixture of races, with their lack of unity in language and sympathy; their ignorance;

their unreliability, as shown in their dishonesty and selfishness in office, and by their marked tendency toward revolutions, might necessitate our retention of the government for an indefinite period, if we once undertook it, requiring a large, permanent army and vast expenditure.

(3) We cannot best aid our neighbor by fighting her. War is the clumsiest, most destructive way of securing prosperity, and is intolerable in our stage of civilization. We can accomplish most by using our great influence in a very active but entirely friendly manner leading to such improvement in land legislation, education, transportation facilities, administration of office, etc., as will tend to establish peace and guarantee permanent prosperity. In that way even foreign investors are likely to suffer less, in the long run, than by our armed intervention.

CURRICULUM FOR MEXICO

Area and Population, Compared with Those of United States and Canada

Our Relations with Mexico:

1. Our connections by land and by sea.
2. Extent of Mexico's trade with us. Extent of imports from us and exports to us—compared with her trade with other countries.
3. Our investments there.
4. Our special interest in recent years, due partly to Monroe Doctrine.

Our Main Problem: Is Our Intervention Advisable?

Minor Problems on which Solution of Main Problem depends:

1. Ease and safety with which various parts of the country might be reached.
2. Character of inhabitants.
3. Degree of unity among them.
4. Their thrift, as shown in their leading occupations and their manner of life.
5. The possibilities of industrial progress, and probable benefits to us.

6. Opposing conclusions as to advisability of our intervention.
7. Our government's solution of the problems up to the present.

MINOR PROBLEM I: EASE AND SAFETY WITH WHICH THE VARIOUS PARTS OF MEXICO MIGHT BE REACHED BY US

1. The temperature suggested by the latitude.
2. The sections having such temperature.
3. The section having temperate climate, with reasons.
4. Rainfall.
5. Effects of above facts on rivers.
6. Conclusions.

MINOR PROBLEM II: CHARACTER OF INHABITANTS

1. Mixture of races.
2. Intelligence (education).
3. Religion.
4. Energy.
5. Reliability as shown in government, past and present.
6. Conclusions.

MINOR PROBLEM III: UNITY AMONG THE PEOPLE

As affected by

1. Differences in color.
2. By character of surface (mountains).
3. Differences in language.
4. Want of railroads and wagon-roads.
5. Land legislation.
6. Conclusions.

MINOR PROBLEM IV: THE THRIFT AMONG THE PEOPLE

1. As shown in leading occupations:
   (a) In mining
      (1) Silver
      (2) Other metals
      (3) Obstacles to mining

(b) In agriculture
  (1) On lowlands
  (2) On slopes
  (3) On plateaus

2. As shown in manner of life:
  (a) In cities
    (1) Effect of little manufacturing
    (2) Effect of little transportation
  (b) In country

3. Conclusions.

MINOR PROBLEM V: POSSIBILITIES OF INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS AND PROBABLE BENEFITS TO US

1. Richness of mineral deposits.
2. Possibilities in agriculture.
3. Availability of foreign capital.
4. Probable benefits to us.
5. Conclusions.

MINOR PROBLEM VI: OPPOSING CONCLUSIONS AS TO ADVISABILITY OF INTERVENTION BY US

(1) Arguments favoring such intervention.
(2) Arguments opposing it.

MINOR PROBLEM VII: OUR GOVERNMENT'S SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM UP TO THE PRESENT

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PRINCIPLES FOR MAKING CURRICULA IN HISTORY

BY ERNEST HORN

In this article the writer has attempted to apply to history the general principles for making a curriculum given by Professor McMurry on pp. 1-10 of this number of the RECORD.

I. INTRODUCTION

The first step in making the course of study in history is to determine the nature and importance of its uses in life outside the school. This task, in the case of history, is particularly difficult, not only because the uses are very numerous, but because they differ widely in kind. Accordingly, it is not surprising that much divergence of opinion should be found concerning the character and value of the contribution of history to the purposes of the school. Some people, indeed, have gone so far as to deny the desirability of retaining history in the elementary curriculum at all. These individuals display the fact that for them history has a particular function, and that this particular function does not seem important enough to be given a place in the school. Similarly, those who insist upon a particular organization, or upon a particular method of presentation seem to have in mind only one of the several important functions. These brief statements will serve to show the importance of discovering, if possible, what are the actual uses to which history is put.

There is little hope of solving this problem so long as we continue to deduce a priori the uses which people make, or should make, of history. Fortunately, however, there are possible sources of data from which we can obtain suggestions as to what these uses are. Clearly, if a comparatively large number of people are found to make a certain use of history, then we may deny the importance, but not the existence of this use.

It is equally obvious that if any of the uses which have been claimed for history are not found to operate in the lives of any considerable number of people, relatively, then we may lament, but not deny, this neglect. And while it is true that usage is not always a criterion of the functions which should or should not operate, it seems reasonable that if, today, any ascribed use is not found to be frequent, even in the case of the most intelligent individuals, it is safer to be dubious about the importance of that claim. Similarly, if a function is found to be frequent, even in the case of the most intelligent individuals, the burden of proof is thrown upon him who denies its worth.

II. The Uses of History in Life Outside the School

1. Method of procedure: In the attempt to discover what the uses and values of history are in life outside the school, the following sources of data are being utilized:

(a) Analysis of books published (assuming that publishers will not continue to publish a type of book that is not read), and the judgment of publishers as to the nature of the market for history.

(b) Statistics of books drawn or consulted in the public libraries, with interpretations by librarians. (Throughout this discussion, biography is classed as history.)

(c) Introspective evidence from a number of individuals in answer to two questions:

(1) When you read history, why do you read it?

(2) What do you get out of such reading?

(d) Analysis of functions as given in books and magazine articles on the teaching of history.

2. While this investigation is still in a preliminary stage, the evidence collected so far is so consistent that it seems to warrant the following general statements.

(a) History cannot be denied an important place in the curriculum. One book out of every ten published in 1913 was history. In 1913, one book in every seven consulted in the reference department of the New York City Library was a history,—more than were consulted in geography and travel, science, and technology combined. Eight per

cent of the books drawn for home use were classed as history, as compared with three per cent in the case of technology, three per cent in the case of science, and three per cent in the case of geography and travel. It must also be kept in mind that a large part of the books classified under other headings contain a large amount of historical material. The percentage of books in history drawn by children is still larger as compared with those drawn by them in science, useful arts, geography, and travel. No data have been found to indicate that the publishers' market, and the public library demand, especially in the case of adults, do not reasonably approximate the actual social demand for history. The large amount, relatively, of books consulted in the reference division of the public library, seems particularly significant.

(b) The principal motives which influence people to read history are as follows:

(1) Because of the dramatic, human interest involved. The conditions under which people have lived, the problems with which they have been confronted, and the ideas and ideals which they have had, provide vicarious experience of an interesting kind, in somewhat the same fashion as in the case of literature. For many, perhaps, and especially in the case of biography, the mere story constitutes the chief interest. The data collected so far seem to show conclusively that this is the most frequently occurring use which is made of history.

(2) To understand historical references met with in newspapers, magazines, books, and public discussion.

(3) In order to understand or appreciate some problem, condition, or activity, in present day life,—to discover how it came to be what it is; for example, the growth of the problem of conservation of natural resources, and the various steps which have been taken for its solution. (These uses are not, of course, mutually exclusive. Each represents a point of emphasis.)

(c) The accomplishment of the purposes given above, which constitutes the chief motives which influence people to read history, are naturally among the important results which are obtained from such reading. In addition to these, the following results or values are given by those who have contributed introspective evidence:

(1) It gives moral backing by stimulating and suggesting ideal attitudes and reactions to certain permanent moral situations. Among these ideals patriotism is very important.

(2) It prevents provincialism and dogmatism through providing a shock which stimulates the reopening of problems concerning present social usages.

(d) There is demand for a much larger proportion of material dealing with the social and industrial problems of each period, than has been given in curricula for history in the elementary schools.

3. The needs and values indicated above necessitate at least two different organizations within the course of study:

(a) One which gives a perspective of the most significant steps in the development of civilization up to the present time

(b) One which focuses upon the interpretation of the most important conditions, problems, and values of today, through the use of historical material.

NOTE.—The present courses of study in the elementary school approximate some modification of the organization described under "1." Few courses have paid much attention to organization as described under "2." It seems certain from the sources of evidence referred to above that this organization must receive greater emphasis,—some, indeed, demand that this be the sole type of organization of history in the elementary school.

III. SPECIFICATIONS FOR MAKING THE COURSE OF STUDY

In making a course of study for the schools of the present time, one must keep in mind the social and psychological demand listed above; and the practical limitations of the present textbooks, the present organization of the course of study as a whole, and the present training of the teachers. In the case of history,

it seems better to begin with the course of study as it is today, not only because this method is more administratively practicable, but because the present sequential organization has been modeled upon one of the organizations which is demanded by the social needs of the present time. The present course of study is poor, not because of the fact that it gives a perspective of the development of civilization up to the present time, and so is roughly sequential or chronological, but because in this perspective the *wrong aspects of civilization have been selected and emphasized.* Below follow the specifications for remaking the course of study, which seem most practicable at the present time.

1. Begin a detailed survey to determine the most important needs for history in life outside the school. (See II.) Professor Bagley, as a member of the Committee on Economy of Time, is directing collection of data which should indicate what history is needed to understand the historical references, in newspapers and magazines. The author is at present attempting to get an adequate list of the most important problems of today:

(a) By having individuals in all lines of work make out lists of these problems.

(b) Through the examination of lists and appraisals already to be found in books and in magazine articles.

(c) The investigation conducted under the direction of Professor Bagley will, of course, be helpful, indirectly, for this purpose.

These investigations, even if efficiently conducted and completed, will give only a part of the evidence which is needed. They constitute only a beginning. And while the results obtained will of necessity lack the finish and completeness which characterize the less intricate tasks in such subjects as handwriting and spelling, they will be valuable as so much available data. The task of determining the place of history in the proper utilization of the leisure period is particularly difficult, but, as indicated above, exceedingly important.

Until many such surveys are completed, the curriculum maker must depend upon rough judgment, but the mere turning of the attention to the demands in life outside

the school, and the recognition of the necessity of discovering social needs for history, will work wonders in vitalizing and in reconstructing the curriculum.

2. Ask with regard to each period or people now comprised in the course of study in history,—Of what use is this material for the interpretation of the conditions, problems, and activities of today?

3. Using 1 and 2, revise the course of study in the following manner.

(a) Eliminate those items which are of too little importance, relatively, to be retained. Reduce the emphasis upon items which seem to be given more attention than is warranted by their value.

(b) Incorporate new needs which are shown either by 1 or 2 to be of sufficient relative importance. As indicated above, the emphasis upon social and industrial life should be vastly increased.

(c) In any period of history, the organization should be about those social activities, problems, and conditions of the time which are most important to the interpretation of life today. These problems, activities and conditions must be seen from the point of view of the people of the period being studied. Otherwise, the most important contributions of history,—the ideas, attitudes, and feelings,—will be lost. The work of government, as of all institutions, should be seen in relation to these activities, problems, and conditions. The growth of the ideal of democracy and the institutions which have made or hindered its realization should receive special emphasis.

There should be frequent special organizations for the purpose of making clear the relationship of each problem, activity, and condition to the present.

(d) There should be a special organization about each of the most important problems, conditions, and activities of the present time. This more properly comes after the general perspective of the development of civilization has been given, because:

(1) The child's understanding and appreciation of these problems, conditions, and values, will be more nearly adequate to guide him in his thinking.

(2) He can trace their essential relationships in past and in contemporary life, which he could not have done without the preparation which he has had.

(3) Because of (1) and (2), this method is more economical of time.

(e) The subject-matter selected for any grade should be suited to the ability and interests of the children who are to study it. Unfortunately, our knowledge of the ability of children in the various grades falls far short of the demands which this standard puts upon it. Experiments which have been carried on in the shifting of subject-matter within the course of study from grade to grade, seem to show that the ability of children in the lower grades is much greater than we have commonly believed. Experience seems to show:

(1) That the child's interest is predominately dramatic (in the sense of being interested in the actual solution of the problems of daily life which have confronted the people of each age), and

(2) That the condition for interest and clean cut thinking is that there be sufficient data to make the problem, condition, or activity concrete.

4. It should afford every aid to the teacher within the limits of a syllabus. This implies:

(a) That it be organized *in the syllabus,* about actual conditions, problems and activities as described above.

(b) That the progress from problem to problem be clearly shown.

(c) That the time to be given to each large problem be indicated within rough limits; as, for example, "How the South recovered from the Civil War: time, from one to two weeks."

(d) That ample bibliography should be provided for the study of each portion of the work. These references should be organized about the individual problems with which they deal.

(e) That directions and suggestions as to method be given.

CURRICULA IN HISTORY

I. A Course of Study in Indian Life

BY LAURA A. GILMORE

The following portion of a curriculum in history is offered as an application of the principles given by Dr. Horn on pp. 33-39. The work as here outlined was given in the third grade of the Speyer School.

I. THE INDIANS OF MANHATTAN ISLAND

(Time allowed, two to three weeks)

1. How was Manhattan Island different when Henry Hudson discovered it from what it is at the present time?

   Approach made by vacant lots in the neighborhood back to the time when there were no houses on Manhattan Island.

2. How did the natives live?

   General view of conditions out of which grew the specific problems.

   (a) What materials were available for making homes?

   The use of small trees, brush and bark.

   (b) How were the homes made?

   Project: The construction of a small brush hut. Done on pupils' own initiative during intermission.

   (c) What foods were available at different seasons?

   Nuts, berries, corn, wild rice.

   Clams, oysters, game.

   Present evidence found in large beds of clam shells.

   (d) How were they secured?

   Primitive method of cultivating corn.

   Hunting by means of bow and arrows, and traps; use of canoes to pursue game.

   (e) How were the foods cooked or preserved for later use?

Roasting on a spit or burying in coals.
Boiling by placing in an uncured skin, together with blood and water, and heating by stones from a nearby fire.

Projects (1) Making fire by means of a fire drill.
(2) Heating water by means of heated stones.
(3) Review of the second grade projects in drying and salting foods.

3. How did they choose their camping grounds?
Effect of the location of clam beds, fresh water, and fishing grounds upon the location of camps.
(a) What was the probable location of their largest camps?
Excursion to Indian camping ground at northern end of Manhattan Island.
(b) Why were they usually near the rivers?

4. Who were the chief enemies of the Indians? How was war carried on?
What implements were used?

II. INDIANS OF THE PLAINS

(Time allowed, one to two weeks)

Some of the children who had attended lectures on Indian life at the Museum of Natural History began a comparison of the Manhattan Indians with those of the western plains. The following problems were considered:

1. How did the food differ from that of the Manhattan Indians? Why no berries, nuts, and fish? What took the place of these?

2. How did these Indians dress? (Lesson with stereopticon views.)
Project: The children designed their own suits, for an assembly program.

3. Why were horses a necessity to the Indians of the plains? How did they get the horses? How were the buffalo hunted?

4. How were the skins cured?
   Removal of hair by scraping or burying in the ground.
   Curing by rubbing with brains of animals.
   Softening by pulling over a stick or by chewing.

5. For what were these skins used?
   Projects: (a) Curing a rabbit skin.
   (b) Constructing a small leather wigwam.

6. Why were homes of very light weight and easily erected a necessity for these Indians?
   How they were set up.
   How carried about.

III. INDIANS OF THE SOUTHWEST

(Time allowed, three to four weeks)

Throughout the whole study the children were interested in making a collection of real Indian things. A blanket which was brought started a discussion as to where the wool came from, thus introducing the Indians of the Southwest.

The problems discussed were:

1. Where did they get their sheep?
   What effect did the possession of these flocks have upon their manner of living?
   (a) Upon the permanency of their homes.
   (b) Kinds of crops raised.
   (c) Daily occupations.

2. How were their blankets made? Preparation of the thread. Weaving.
   Project: The children wove a rug upon a large loom similar to those used by Indians.

3. How was the corn prepared for food?
   Project: Grinding corn by means of stones.

4. How was the increased necessity for utensils met?
   Project: (a) Making clay bowls by use of coil method. Excursion to Museum of Natural History to study shapes and designs.
   (b) Weaving small raffia mats to illustrate the use of fibers in the basket making.

5. In what ways was the home peculiarly well adapted to the use of these Indians? Daily range of temperature did not affect temperature of the interior of the house.

Project: Construction of a small adobe house.

IV. INDIANS OF TODAY

1. How does the government provide for the Indians of the present day?

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II. A Course of Study in the History of the United States, 1789-1840

BY ERNEST HORN

The extract from the course of study in United States history, which is given below, has been taught successfully at the Speyer School in the last half of the seventh year and in the first part of the eighth year. It attempts to illustrate the principles of curricula making given on pp. 33-39. A, B, C, D, and E represent merely the headings of the large divisions in the course of study. D and E and part of C are given in the same detail as in the syllabus. Lack of space prohibits giving more than mere headings under A and B, and under C, I, II, III, and IV.

A. HOW A NEW GOVERNMENT WAS FORMED

B. WHAT THE OUTLOOK WAS IN 1789 FOR BUILDING A STRONG NATION

C. WHAT WERE THE MOST IMPORTANT PROBLEMS THAT CONFRONTED THE NEW GOVERNMENT

I. How to provide governmental machinery.
II. How to provide money.
III. How to deal with foreign nations.
IV. How to aid the West.
V. How to achieve commercial independence. (Time allowed, one to two weeks.)
   1. The difficulties arising during the confederation from state regulations of commerce. Why Congress was unable to get satisfactory treaties with foreign nations.
   2. What the new government did. The protection by tonnage taxes; the monopoly of coastwise trade; treaties with France and with Spain. Jay's treaty with England. (Use the recent discussions on the development of a merchant marine.)
   3. The effect of the European wars. At first, prosperity; later, the vindictiveness of the war between England and France worked hardships on the American ships. (The approach to this problem was made, this year, through the problems which the United States is facing in the present war.)
   4. How the United States tried to protect her commerce.
      (a) By peaceful means. Negotiations. The embargo: its effect on the United States and on the offending nations. Why it failed. (A consideration of present discussions with regard to the shipment of food and munitions of war by the United States.)
      (b) By war. The influence of the West in bringing the war about. The lack of preparation on the part of the United States, and its disastrous effect. The fighting in the North, about Washington, on the sea, and for the possession of the Mississippi. How, with the fall of Napoleon,

the whole British military and naval force threatened the United States. The treaty of peace. What the war had accomplished.

(c) Post-bellum treaties.

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**Adams. History of the United States, Vols. VIII and IX.
*McMaster. History of the People of the United States, Vol. III, IV.

D. HOW THE NATION LOOKED TO ITS DEVELOPMENT

(Time allowed, three to six weeks)

I. The situation at the close of the war. How the national feeling had grown. What Madison did in his message of 1815 to turn the attention of the country to its own needs.

II. How the country planned to develop its manufactures.

1. The industrial revolution. The preparation for industrial progress through the progress of science. The invention and development of the steam engine. The improvements in spinning and weaving. Beginning of the factory system. Movement in Europe for better transportation. Social unrest in Europe. The beginning of the industrial revolution in the United States.
2. The effect of the embargo and the war in turning much capital into manufacturing. The impossibility of American competition with foreign goods, so long kept out, which now flooded the market.
3. How American manufactures could be protected and new ones encouraged. The Protective Tariff. How each section regarded it. Clay's American System.

III. How better transportation was secured.

1. The lesson taught by the war. The economic demand for better transportation. Good roads and canal movement in Europe.
2. What the national government did. The arguments for national aid as given by Calhoun. The Cumberland Road. Why the aid of the government was stopped by Madison. The disappointment in all sections, and especially in New York.
3. What state and private enterprise accomplished. Turnpikes; canals, the Erie Canal and its effect on New York. The canal from Philadelphia to Pittsburg. The Ohio Canal. The limits of the usefulness of these canals as determined by the number and direction of the water courses. (Discuss the recent improvements on the Erie Canal.)
4. The invention of the steamboat. The rapid introduction, and the revolution of river traffic. National aid to transportation; river and harbor improvements.
5. The coming of the locomotive. The effect of the railroad in supplementing canal, turnpike, and steamboat traffic.
6. Summary: the comparison of the speed and cost of travel and freight shipments before and after these inventions. The effect upon the growth of cities; upon rural prosperity.

IV. How the Southeast was rendered secure through the purchase of Florida.

V. How the encroachments of European nations were stopped. The revolt of the Spanish colonies; the attitude of the United States toward these revolts. The weakness of the new republic. The danger to the United States from European aggressions. How, through the Monroe Doctrine, these aggressions were stopped. Why the United States was supported by Great Britain. (Take up recent and present problems which have arisen because of the Monroe Doctrine.)

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Beard. The Industrial Revolution.

E. EFFECT OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND THE NEW NATIONAL POLICIES

(Time allowed, four to eight weeks)

I. The difference in methods of gaining a living, even in Colonial times. The causes for such differences. Why, with the resources of the South, commerce and manufacturing had not been developed. Why slavery failed in the North. Review of conditions in the West.

II. How the national policies of protecting manufactures and aiding transportation affected each section.

1. New England and other North Atlantic States.
Growth 1800-40.

(a) How this section was fitted for manufacturing. How the difficulty of obtaining skilled labor and improved machinery retarded its development. How the embargo and the War of 1812 turned capital into manufacturing. How skilled labor and better machinery were secured. How the industrial revolution in Europe affected its growth. How much the Protective Tariff fostered this industry. What kinds of articles were most produced. How better transportation secured additional markets. Beginnings of immigration and its effect.

(b) The effect of manufacturing upon the growth of the cities. Trace the development of the urban population by decades, 1790-1840. Show the changes in city life, using New York as a type; Police Department, Fire Department, oil and gas light, water supply, sewerage, paved streets, horse cars. Social reorganization on an industrial basis.

2. The West. Growth 1800 to 1840. What conditions favored immigration from other states; which states sent the greatest number; the character of the settlers. How the westward movement was made easier because of improved facilities for transportation. The economic development of the West. The growth of influence in national affairs; Clay, Jackson, Harrison, Benton. How the interests of the West are related to the South; to the North. How Missouri was admitted as a slave state.

3. The South.

(a) Growth 1800-1840. How its growth compared with that of the Western and North Atlantic States. How the Southwest was settled. The increased attention to cotton culture. The effect of the increased crop upon the price of cotton. How the South became dependent upon the North and West for manufactured goods and food supplies. The soil of the old South becomes impoverished. How hard times in this section resulted from the inability to compete with the new slave states.

(b) How the tariff affects the South. How it affects the price of articles which the South had to buy. How the South was adapted to manufacturing; the supply of coal and iron, the water power and the facilities for transportation. Why the South, in spite of these advantages, did not profit by the tariff. Hard times are blamed on the tariff and internal improvements. How South Carolina attempted to nullify the tariff. How the interest in combating the tariff becomes bound up with the interest in the extension of slavery.

III. What changes in social life accompanied these economic changes?

1. The restrictions upon voting during the early administrations. Why the people of the West demanded a provision for making the government more democratic. How the demand spread to the East. What election reforms were desired. What the effects of the popular demands were; the beginning of the Spoils System. Compare these movements with the growth of democracy in Europe.
2. Men become more active in the promotion of the welfare of others. Compare throughout with conditions in Europe.
   (a) How free education was secured and its privileges extended. The work of Horace Mann in promoting popular education. The beginnings of co-education in elementary schools, grammar schools, and in colleges.
   (b) Religious changes; the rise of the Unitarian church. The beginning of the Disciples of Christ. The rise of the Mormon Church. Founding of the missionary societies. The colonization society.
   (c) Other humanitarian movements. The end of imprisonment for debt. The improvement of prisons; the change to the reformatory idea. More humane asylums. Various movements for bettering the condition of the negro. Abolition. The temperance movement. The demand of women for equal rights with men.
   (d) The increase in time given to the pursuit of culture. The beginnings of the Golden Age in American literature. The improvement of newspapers and magazines. Growth of the interest in art. The condition of music and the formation of musical societies. New York as an art and literary center.

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III. A Course of Study on the Development of Agriculture

BY ERNEST HORN

The following material, which is organized about the problem of *how to improve agricultural conditions,* is given as an illustration of the direct organization of the materials of history around modern problems, conditions and activities. Each of the more pressing modern problems has been treated in a similar fashion. This part of the course of study presupposes that the pupils who are to study it have completed the study of the United States up to the present time, and therefore have the setting of the development of agriculture, in the development of the country as a whole. Much of the material given below had therefore been studied before. Preliminary experiments seem to show that it is unwise to use such an organization without having gotten something of this general perspective beforehand. Certainly, if the general perspective were not presupposed, far more attention would have to be given to making sure that the relationship between the progress in agriculture and the progress in other aspects of American life is made plain. This unit is planned for New York City children to give a much needed appreciation and understanding of rural life and

its problems. The time allotment for all the work below outlined is from two to four weeks.

A. WHY PEOPLE IN THE CITY SHOULD BE INTERESTED IN RURAL LIFE AND ITS PROBLEMS

I. Show the economic interdependence of the city and the country. Introduce magazine articles, dealing with the "back to the land" movement. Point out the growing tendency to use the country as a vacation ground. How desirable are investments in farm mortgages, farms, elevators, etc.?

II. The interest of the city as a consumer of rural products. How some of the chief products are produced and marketed. How the city's food supply is protected by legislation, for example, dairy inspection.

III. The significance of national self sufficiency in food supply. (Compare with the present war in Europe.)

B. WHAT HAS BEEN DONE TO IMPROVE AGRICULTURAL CONDITIONS UP TO THE PRESENT TIME.

I. The growth, shown statistically, of the whole product and of the chief crops. Compare with development of other industries. The increase in acreage by decade. Show the changes of the relationship of rural and urban population. Show the changes in the distribution of crops. Make a comparison of the total product and of the chief crops, with other countries of the world. Show, roughly, changes in the center of agricultural production.

II. How this growth has been made possible.

1. By the character of American farmers. They have never been peasants, but "the same kind of men precisely as those who filled the professions or engaged in commercial or mechanical pursuits." (Walker: *The Making of the Nation*, p. 66.)
2. By an abundance of cheap and fertile land. How land has been obtained from the government. The amount of land still held by the government, and its nature. The ease with which transfers in real estate may be made; compare with real estate transfers in Europe.

3. By the relationship of growth and prosperity to national legislation. How the farmer has benefited and been harmed by the various tariffs. (Why the Corn Product Refining Co., at Edgewater, imports corn from Argentina.) The Interstate Commerce Commission.
4. By the increasing degree in which the various problems of farm life have been met. (See below.)

III. The problems in the solution of which most progress has been made.

1. The pioneer work in settling the country. The westward migration. The relationship at each stage, of agricultural prosperity, to the development of transportation, manufactories, markets, etc. Contrast the United States as it is today with what it was in 1800.
2. How to increase efficiency in the cultivation of crops.
   (a) By the use of improved machinery.
      (1) Primitive agricultural implements: Indian, Egyptian Roman, medieval, English, up to the settlement of America. Early colonial agriculture up to the revolution. Small importance of the improvements in farm implements before the nineteenth century.
      (2) The development of farming implements since 1800. Emphasize the recency of these developments, and the marked supremacy of American inventions. Give the improvements of the implements:
         (a) For preparing the soil for planting: the various improvements from the crude plow in use in 1800, to the present tractor. The harrow, the disc, and the roller; the use of steam and gasoline engines for power.
         (b) For planting: the hand planter, the drill, sower, planter.
         (c) For cultivating the crop.

(d) Harvesting: rather primitive methods prevailed, for the most part, until 1850, and still continue in some parts of the country; the mowing machine, the horse rake, the corn harvester, reaper, binder, header, thresher, etc.

(e) Comparison of the labor, time required, and cost of producing a bushel of wheat in 1700, 1800, 1850, 1915; a bale of hay; a bushel of corn.

(f) Improvement in machines for the more economic utilization of the crops raised. Machines for shelling, grinding, etc. The silo, the cotton gin.

(g) Improvements in fencing and in buildings.

(h) Improvements in vehicles: the wagon, buggy, automobile.

(b) By the use of better methods.

(1) The knowledge of agriculture at the time of the settlement of America.

(2) The rapidity and importance of recent developments.

(a) In the study of the soil; fertilization, rotation, drainage, tillage.

(b) Plant breeding and cultivation. The wonderful developments in fruits, vegetables, grain, grass. Make comparisons between the crop yield and the quality of the crop in colonial days and at the present time. Show new products developed by scientific breeding. The tremendous economic significance of these improvements. Compare yields in the United States with those in Europe.

(c) Scientific animal breeding. Stress especially the development in beef and dairy cattle, hogs and poultry. Compare the size of the live stock one hundred years ago with that of today. The economic significance of these improvements. Developments in feeding, housing, etc.

(d) By a study of the relation of insects, birds, rodents, etc., to the prosperity of the farmer. The growth of the protection of man's allies by legislation. By a study of the plant and animal diseases. What has been done in the control of such diseases as the chestnut blight, foot and mouth disease, etc. The use of the quarantine for all plants and animals that are shipped from place to place. The control of such pests as the tick, the grasshopper, the boll weevil, the borer, the brown-tailed moth, the web-worm, etc. The growing importance of the veterinarian. Some historic plagues.

(e) By the reclamation of unused and worn out lands. Removing stones and clearing forests as the early forms of reclamation. Irrigation and dry farming. Drainage of swamps. The number of acres put into cultivation by these various methods. How the government has aided. Where the reclamation of wornout lands has been most common.

(3) How the government has aided the dissemination of such knowledge. Trace the growth of the Department of Agriculture.

(a) Through the establishment of special bureaus and divisions. Weather, Animal Industry, Plant Industry, Soil, Entomology, Chemistry, Forestry.

(b) By aiding agricultural colleges, and establishing experiment stations.

(c) The Year Book. Farmers' Bulletin.

3. How conditions for marketing have been improved.

(a) The growth of cities as markets, and of foreign markets.

(b) Improvement in good roads, and better transportation; the immensity of this problem in a new country; types of early roads; how construction was financed. Improvements in road making up to the present time. The present good road movements. Growth of interurban railways. The significance of waterway. Cheaper rates. Better warehouses, and elevator accommodations. The establishment of the packing industry. Co-operative marketing.

4. How farm life has been made more attractive.

(a) What has been done to improve the home. Compare the conveniences of the home in 1800 and 1850 with those modern conveniences possible at the present time; better sanitation, telephone, rural free delivery, parcels post, traveling libraries, co-operative creameries, laundries, etc.

(b) Lightening the other work incidental to farming. The windmill, the gasoline engine. Milking machine. Easier fencing; compare the labor required to fence with rails and that required in using wire.

(c) The improvement of rural churches. Church Federation.

(d) Greater facilities for recreation and social life. Early social life in rural communities. The breaking down of many earlier forms of recrea-

tion. The present need of guarding against the introduction of undesirable forms of amusements from the city. How to provide for utilizing the recreational facilities of the country. Rural social centers: The Chautauqua movement; county fairs; contests, sports. Overcoming isolation.

IV. What the modern problems are. (This part of the course is meant to continue the outline as given under III, by taking up those problems, the recognition of which has been more recent, or for which less adequate solutions have been found.)

1. To continue the improvements listed under III, and to provide for the better dissemination of these improvements. (Point out that almost the whole historical range of farming implements, methods, and social conditions, from the colonial, up to the present time, may be found today within the boundaries of the United States.)
2. To secure better co-operation among farmers, and between the farm and the city. The beginnings of co-operation. Early state societies. The Farmers' Alliance. The Grange. Present co-operative agencies.
3. The introduction of business methods into farm management; the recency of this. The aid of the Department of Agriculture.
4. The demand for more suitable rural education. The early rural school. Improvements in supervision and in organization. Establishment of agricultural colleges, and experiment stations, rural high schools. The early beginnings of agricultural magazines. Farmers' Institutes.
5. To secure more efficient farm labor. The influence of the growth of other industries upon this problem. Compare the changes in wages for farm labor with the changes in wages in other occupations. The relation of this problem to the possibility of alleviation of the congestion of immigrants in the city. What the South has done to solve its special problem, since the Civil War. The recent increase in farm tenancy.

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THE TEACHING OF DRAMATIC ARTS IN THE KINDERGARTEN AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

BY CAROLINE CRAWFORD

Much confusion exists at present in the minds of educators regarding the meaning and presentation of the dramatic arts in the school curriculum. Some of this confusion arises from the lack of a critical distinction between subjects which come under the head of dramatic arts and those which do not; but most of it comes from ignorance on the part of the teacher as to the historical development of these arts, while yet she conscientiously but vainly struggles to incorporate them into the daily work of the school.

What are the dramatic arts? What is their use to the little child? How can they be made valuable in the kindergarten and elementary school? The dramatic arts, dance, music and literature, are in their development a united growth from one composite form, which is the ballad dance in the history of the folk.

The rhythmic dance, dramatic game, lyric song and narrative story of all folk have their counterparts in the kindergarten and primary grades as the outcome of an evolution as inevitable as that seen in any normal psychological process.

The end of all art is to define values in life, and a definition of the much used term value will aid in understanding this point of view. By value is meant the interpretation, in terms of gradually evolving feeling, of the images which have come to us through facts. This interpretation now becomes the means of expressing our inner life: and the dramatic arts are one medium for such expression.

Even the most skillful among teachers constantly fail to differentiate the two forms of knowledge between which little children move ever quickly back and forth. These are a knowledge of the facts of life and a knowledge of the values of these facts; or the scientific and artistic attitudes of mind. Education has

followed the trend of the day in emphasizing the scientific point of view. Processes and methods in the world of fact are in a high state of development; but observation of the inner meaning of these things in terms of the spirit has been neither intensive nor accurate. It is true that we know the scientific world through working for definite and specific ends, which represent our needs, therefore our interests; but having discovered these "useful arts"—and science is that, pragmatically considered—we desire a further expression of their meaning in terms of human feeling. And the greatest art is an interpretation of values that have become universal in human experience.

The distinction between knowledge of a fact and its value, according to our definition of that term, is easily perceived when the extreme examples are ready-made. The dictionary may define a house as a building designed for a place of residence; but the artist defines some value of it when saying:

> "The little road says Go,
> But the little house says Stay:"

or

> "And the old manse is changed today;
> It wears an altered face
> And shields a stranger race."

These are values in terms of human emotion, facts which transcend their outward form and begin to take on meaning in the sense of human feeling and character.

An extreme illustration of the two attitudes of mind is found in the famous conversation between William Blake and the man of science. They were describing how the sun impressed them when they saw it rising. The scientific man compared it to a large copper plate in size and color; but the poet said that when the sun rose he saw a mighty host of angels praising God and singing holy! holy! holy! The one is descriptive of outward aspect; the other tells of some inner value to the soul.

The spontaneous actions of the small child have been seized upon by many an unskillful teacher, and so-called "dramatization" is the result. It comes from a recognition by such teacher of the right and even the necessity for the child to express himself in his own way. He often says after a story is told;

"Now let's play it." This desire is the manifestation of a most valuable instinct; and the teacher recognizing it as such, allows the children a certain freedom of expression, but having had no real education in the artistic fields of expression herself, she is unable to distinguish the methods and means by which the child passes the rather misty borderland that separates and yet unites the scientific and the artistic forms. And when the child from perceived facts has unconsciously wandered into the field of artistic knowledge and expression, the teacher's scientific training leads her to choose for all the forms of activity an end which is in accord with her own habits of thought, and she says: "Go to; we will use this power which the child possesses for teaching the technical process of reading." The result of such misuse and misapplication of a great instinct is that the school attempts to apply the method of artistic characterization to everything under the heavens, from a hitching post to a scientific definition; that the market is flooded with dramatic readers which on every page violate the principles of artistic truth; and that even the leaders in the educational festival and drama who seem as ignorant of the laws of artistic expression as Bottom, Quince and Starveling are as like to do as doughty a burlesque as these good folk, and call the world to witness in the name of genetic education. But attempting to teach a language one cannot read is recognized as senseless; and the perversion of the art of the dance to muscular development, or the use of the drama to teach geographical facts or the technique of reading is quite as foolish an educational process. One urgent need in education today is a more scientific study of the development of the arts in child life. We are still in a maze concerning the *method of expression* by which values are portrayed, and the *means* through which such expression is accomplished. Nor has any scientific study been made of the earliest arts through which the child begins to mould his experiences in terms of value.

This method of expression is the same for all art and in all time. The way of the little child is the same as that of the genius—through characterization. Both represent the "ideally signified" through the image of an external fact. The genius bestrides his winged steed and paces beside "perilous seas

in fairy lands forlorn," or when danger threatens soars easily above the misty mountain tops: the small boy strides a stick to play horse, and for the time being he is driving through space; he is not a running boy astride a stick, as he evolves in figurative expression toward the high light of the genius.

This first element in the method of expression—characterization—has not been better defined than by Rodin: "Character is the essential truth of any natural object, whether ugly or beautiful: it is even what one might call double truth, for it is the inner truth translated by the outer truth; it is the soul, the feelings, the ideas, expressed by the features of the face, by the gestures and actions of a human being, by the tones of a sky, by the lines of a horizon."

But characterization is only one term in the method of artistic expression. Unless enough of the action is portrayed to reveal the inner life in relation to changing events, a character is but a partial revelation. This placing of character in such relations that some action is completed is the second term in the method of artistic expression. Technically, we call this plot. The whole action is imaged from its beginning to the end where it completes itself in feeling and then passes away; for plot shows the play of outer forces on the life within and the return play of life on the outer forces. A full interpretation of character is found only through some action of such duration and extent that the inner meaning is revealed. The sculptor gives us the climax of his plot, and we read in it the beginning and the end. But the dramatic artist must unfold the whole action in sequence, whether the form of its expression be novel, dance or drama.

And the third term in method of expression is what we call setting. The environment is, psychologically, a vital part of the action. We recognize the interchange between the two in everyday life. Powerful in their effect on the character are the surroundings in which an action takes place. We are, curiously enough, stumbling upon this very essential truth in our civic thought and action; and social science recognizes the fact that the dominating characteristic of a people may be determined by the setting of its country.

Character, plot, setting—these significant elements in the method of the expression of values, have always been especially

connected with the arts, and have, therefore remained somewhat apart from the confusion that we find when we attempt to analyze the *means* of expression. These are also three in number, viz., action, tone, and speech; and the confusion arises because these means portray facts as well as values. The difference is in the end sought, and the accomplishment of that end depends upon how any fact has come, moulded by feeling, into relationship within us. Imagination affects this change, and the degree of imagination discloses the extent and power of our development in the world of values. He to whom a fact is but a bare fact perverts the game and the dance to muscle training; the beauties of Milton's imagery to exercises in parsing; and the quality of Beethoven to scale and chord practice.

These three means of expression (from this point we speak of the dramatic arts only) the everyday actions, tones and words which obtain for us facts of existence, also transmute this same stuff of the day's work into the fairy gold of the spirit; and one tragic point in education today is that knowledge and feeling, word and emotion are continually being sundered. We must learn that he who gathers facts and never translates them into values, becomes a Fafnir, and finally loses human character, in the sense that he creates nothing of worth to human feeling. He merely hoards a dictionary and an encyclopaedia of the arts of life.

In education, when we come to apply these factors of the methods and means of artistic expression, our psychology demands that we keep ever in mind this triple evolution; first the child, with instinctive tendencies; second, the method of artistic representation, and, third, the means through which it is to be accomplished. At this point these questions confront us. When does the little child begin instinctively to work over his experiences? What are his tools for expression? What is his development in power to feel values and express them? Which comes first, action, tone or speech, and how are they blended one with the other? Where do the factors of character, plot and setting first begin to show crude and elemental manifestations?

Psychologically, the child enters into the world of values in the play-period of development. He begins to make over, mould,

blend the gathered experiences. It is, as Dewey says, not the "physically present," but the "ideally significant" that is the prominent characteristic of activity at this time. Unfortunately for the child, the interpretation in education for such activity has followed the wrong line of thought. The biologist has asserted that the main end of life is training and preserving the physical organism; and the result is that we are painfully analyzing playful activity from the biological standpoint, and forgetting the expression of the plastic mind. When the child is ready to enter into this world of values, his activity is so misdirected that the instinct which plays at relating images for their inner meaning is crushed out or perverted. The teacher can, with some children, forever quench the flame. To be sure we have come a long way in education to grant the instinct to play at all, but we chiefly discuss its physical and biological values. "The definition of play which enjoys widest currency at the present moment identifies it with the free, pleasurable, and spontaneous activity of the voluntary muscles."[1] Psychology in accepting this, has allowed the biologist to misplace the principal and subordinate parts in the great drama of life, and to discuss the real significance of play as the psychologic by-product in a biological process. The real meaning of playful activity is evident, psychologically, when growth, in the sense of increased consciousness, is accepted as the end of life, and the physical and biological factors recognized as the legitimate by-product which tests the process. In the first period of the child's development the signs of the physical changes in size and structure are so much more evident to the casual eye than the great psychical forces that are developing, that we fail to recognize the important factors. "The joy the child shows in learning to use his limbs, to translate what he sees into what he handles, to connect sounds with sights, sights with taste and touch, and the rapidity with which intelligence grows in the first year and a half of life (the time during which the more fundamental problems of the use of the organism are mastered) are sufficient evidence that the development of physical control is not a physical act, but an intellectual achievement."[1]

[1] Angell, Psychology, p. 306.
[1] Dewey, How We Think, p. 158.

This stage of activity underlies, as a psychical necessity, the second stage or time when the child begins to play his images in all sorts of combinations in order to find the value of them. And this play is the control of activity through the meanings of things, and is, therefore, the child's first attempt at the expression of character. The images that he uses are his own. True, he takes them out of all kinds of associations, but he characterizes the value that is real and tangible to him. These are so different from our average adult fixed standards of character in the several arts that we are blind to the tremendous import of this fundamental factor in its rudimentary artistic beginning. Worse even than this, we often punish the child for changing the outer fact. Our Puritanic matter-of-fact minds destroy the imagination as our ancestors burned its products in the name of righteousness. We may not be quite so literal as this, but we define this time of growth as a "make-believe" period in the child's life, and use the instinct to develop the body for technical ends in life. "Play as work, as freely productive activity, industry as leisure, that is, as occupation which fills the imagination and the emotions as well as the hands, is the essence of art. Art is not an outer product, nor an outer behavior. It is an attitude of spirit, a state of mind—one which demands for its own satisfaction and fulfilling a shaping of matter to new and more significant form. To feel the meaning of what one is doing and rejoice in that meaning, to unite in one concurrent fact the unfolding of the inner emotional life and the ordered development of material external conditions—that is art."[1]

From the play-period of childhood as our starting point, we follow, but not with exactness, the child's development in method and in means of artistic expression. Action, the child's first language, is the one through which the value of experience also is revealed. This very significant beginning is in the characterization of the joyous and the sorrowful moods of childhood. For we value first in terms of feeling and emotion alone. The child begins to express feeling in relation to particular incidents and oft repeated experiences that produce in him the emotional tone. The power to pass from an individual to a general ex-

[1] Dewey, Culture and Industry in Education, 1906.

pression comes only after he forms his patterns through repetition. These patterns are necessarily rhythmic movement, and what we have taught mechanically for the most part as rhythm in the kindergarten and primary grades is the child's first attempt to characterize feeling through action. Teachers must realize that these patterns are universal expressions in all child activity, but must teach them first in connection with the experiences of the child which suggest the mood, and not hand them out—ready-made—for him to follow. Gradually he fixes pattern in relation to the kind of feeling that is portrayed, and gains the power to use his symbol to recall the mood he wishes to express.

Soon, however, the child demands more definite images than the response of feeling alone, and he takes these out of the world about him to express character. Figurative language begins here in such action—it is really personification. He uses the image of the galloping horse to represent "going like mad;" the train is something that goes and goes and goes. An image of something that comes and is gone, is portrayed as a flying bird. He tells of somebody bigger than you, or of someone so little he cannot be seen, as he characterizes through action giants and fairies.

After the child acquires a certain degree of proficiency in representation through this fundamental form of character-portrayal he unconsciously passes on to a more complex type. He not only uses some significant action to portray character, but he tries to complete this action. This more comprehensive picturing of character in a completed act is the next step, and is the beginning of plot-making. The meaning of things that have become more or less familiar are organized, arranged and united into wholes. Again, action is the principal language used in this elemental plot, and the story is portrayed by acting characters. The first form of plot—dramatic dance and game—already exists in our schools, but its use, as previously stated, has been perverted to physical exercise. We have failed to seize the psychological and artistic import of this plot-making tendency. The child creatively enters the field of artistic construction long before he has developed a means for such expression, and his language is the best composite that he can muster, out of the

actions, tones, words he has mastered. The important thing is that children do begin to relate, organize and compose their experience into wholes. Through memory and imagination the story is worked out according to the inner need of the little artist. As we study the evolution of the dramatic arts and examine these rudimentary forms, we find that the ways in which the child builds the characters into a completed act are experiments toward and with the laws that are true for all artistic form.

The first of the great principles of artistic construction—the law of the movement of forces within the plot toward the highest point of consciousness, which we call climax—is accomplished by these two forces: the use of cumulative repetition of like elements, and the relating of two or more elements which are unlike and played in contrast to one another. These two elements—the repetition of like, or the opposition of unlike images, are found in all children's dances, games, plays and stories, though in very elementary forms. Dances like many of the "Polskas," so simple that they are merely expressions of joyful moods, begin with skipping, and by increase of speed and emphasis, repeat to a very high climax. Or as in the choral ballad of "Siegfried" still sung in the Faroe Islands, a leader in the center chants the story. The chorus repeats the same refrain after each stanza, but with such increased emphasis that it reaches the climax with great power. The folk game "Three Dukes" is a fine example of the use of contrasting elements in construction.

The second principle—the law of the concentration of forces within the plot, by which arrangement of principal and subordinate parts is organized and which makes for proportion and balance of the images used, is also evident in the child's struggle to create an artistic whole. The desire to be "it" in the play is an evidence of the feeling of this law at work. A game where one child is prominent in character, as "Little Sally Waters" is an elemental type of arrangement of principal and subordinate parts.

These laws of artistic construction are often more clearly defined in the child's creative output than in much of the folk and popular material used in the school today; for children will

build about the tree a Christmas dance of joy that is true in its structure; but instead of being allowed to develop this, naturally, something as far-fetched as "Sellingers Round" is introduced and painfully taught. Games, dances, songs and stories that violate these principles of the revelation of character, and are untrue and consequently immoral, are in wide use in education. For the real end is never seen. If the child gets some exercise, learns a few notes in a scale, or likes a "cute" story, we pass the art-form without question.

These first plots which are built through action have also some musical form, that is, they have rhythmic structure and often tones are used in them. Sometimes the child chants as he plays, as in the "Brier Rose" where the children in the chorus sing the main actors to sleep. Words at this stage are a burden, and the child pays little or no heed to them. They are soon used, however, especially if they describe or follow the action closely. In these early plots all the actors tell the same story at the same time, and all enter into the characterization, though not to the same degree. This kind of choral drama is the one most often seen in the kindergarten. There are, naturally, few incidents, perhaps only one, in the plot; and that is developed to a climax by repetition. The simplest games and dances of children and of the folk are of this type. The circle "Playing Soldier" is a game with all the actors playing the whole plot. "Would you know how doth the Farmer" is an old choral drama of the folk. These games are often so short and meager in structure that the artist demands several repetitions of the play to feel the climax at all. This is a clue to the oft-repeated "Let's do it again;" and when that climax is felt, the interest wanes.

After considerable experimentation with plots built in this manner, the child begins to try his images in contrast one with another. Many Mother Goose plots are specimens of this adroit handling. And the perennial interest of Mother Goose is not that the child loves nonsense, rhyme and jingle but that the plots are artfully executed and the experiences within the range of his mind. "Jack and Jill" is a good story of a childish tragedy in life.

Children build toward very definite climaxes and use repeated and contrasted images to fit their feeling of the way things ought

to go. Sometimes the repetition in a child's play seems to us perfunctory, when out of his experience it is truly cumulative in character. Often the elements contrasted are highly amusing to grown-up minds, when to the child they are most serious. The situation occasionally develops beyond the child's power to relate the forces and he loses his sense of character in action, and places unrelated incidents side by side. But grown-ups are guilty of the same offense, and often lose the thread of a story they attempt to tell. On the other hand, the child often plays his characters into relations with the keenest insight into value, and many times with an extremely vivid sense of humor.

He is during this period constantly experimenting in the search for and the arrangement of the principal and subordinate parts. A child who is intensely interested in some plot, will force his arrangement on very unwilling subjects, so great is his desire to play the story. If one questions whether children really recognize the principal part, it is only necessary to watch members of a group struggle for the essential character—the title rôle. After some trials however, the group will suddenly choose the child who best portrays the character. These are factors of artistic structure that are as definite as those of a more highly developed period in plot construction.

These dances and games remain in choral form until one actor takes the very obvious principal part and plays in the center of a circling chorus. As soon as the form develops to this point, the elements of suspense and surprise, due to the unknown quantities that may develop, enter definitely into the plot. The one actor plays with a chorus which carries the mood of the story and gets its expression in the emotional climaxes. The chorus often changes its character, as in the folk drama of "The Sleeping Beauty" or in some of the Siegfried ballads. Many times its repetition of the gathering emotions carries the climax with mighty power. Sometimes the chorus carries the mood not in sympathy with but against the principal characters, by the repetition of contrasting elements. This feeling may become so intense that the chorus splits in two, and one side plays against the other.

When the choral climaxes are strongly developed, the musical form begins to predominate. The words which the chorus uses

are the first forms of figurative speech to develop—exclamation, interjection and interrogation. These words portray strong feeling. Dialogue as soon as used is this inner expression of feeling rather than outward statement of fact. The difficulty in the school, however, is that dialogue is taken from written descriptive matter in the reader.

When the whole drama is given by the chorus, the arrangement of the parts in time and space is a subordinate matter. When, however several actors play with the chorus, or with one another, the arrangement of appearance and disappearance of the character is very difficult for children to feel. For instance, if there are two scenes in a play and different children are in them, they try at first to play both at the same time. This is due to the fact that while in the kindergarten, children are in the dramatic game stage; but when they reach the first grade we require them to present a drama too long and too involved in structure for them to follow. These first experiments in plot-making, the arrangement of forces and the movement of them toward a climax, with the various characters becoming more and more prominent are of course crude and many times indefinite in form; but with an understanding teacher they are always invaluable for the child's growth. A real appreciation of artistic form develops with experiments in construction.

The child's experiments in setting are not so significant as these first trials at characterization and plot-making. He chooses the setting for his dramas as best he can. The properties he needs are usually too large for him to manage, so he moves his characters and places them to the best possible advantage. But this often ruins his plot, and often a play that is going very well is broken off by the necessity of moving a company of little actors over too much space. The teacher can help here materially by having the children so arrange their properties that their attention will not be too distracted from the plot by having to cross and recross the room to get at the tables, chairs, etc. Often too, this difficulty appears in the school drama, and the teacher does not see how to get the setting into the plot, so the drama moves around from one room to another, to the great confusion of the action. This difficulty is greater when there is a chorus in the play. It is sometimes sent out of the room

and loses the thread of the story to such an extent that it fails utterly to mould the emotional climax which is its function. To play the environment into the action is a difficult thing even in a highly developed art. Furthermore, the child does not feel the effect of the setting in making the whole as he does the more intensely human qualities, and it is at a much later period of growth that the unity of relationship of the setting or the lack of it becomes vividly apparent to him. This element, important as it is when we realize the relation of art as an educative force in social and civic life, is one that depends for direction much more than the other elements upon the influence of the teacher. Atmosphere is a large part of characterization, but only a rather highly developed intelligence perceives this clearly. The child, however, makes the atmosphere in his own mind take on the form he conceives and carries over the feeling of his action regardless of the fact of the particular situation.

Another point which belongs partly to characterization and partly to setting is costume. The little child always uses the significant thing in costume to give the idea of the character. A drum and a hat make a soldier: later a sword must be added to complete the picture. A crown turns the actor into a king or a queen. Sometimes a train completes the queen's costume and a mantle the king's. Costume has ever developed through the portrayal of character. Even the costumes of our daily life were many of them designed to fit particular characters in some drama of life.

To this point in the discussion we have kept rather closely within the artistic manifestations of children during the play-period, and have suggested some but by no means all of the important initial appearances in the dramatic arts both as to method of presentation and as to the means at hand for the development of the forms which appear. Fortunately the kindergarten philosophy recognizes a training toward value in life. But in some instances it has allowed its forms to become fixed and therefore sterile, forgetting that a little child can not learn value in life from a few symbols. In attempting to free itself from a few fixed forms of rhythms, games, songs and stories, the kindergarten needs a clearer vision of the meaning and the evolution of the arts than at present exists. For the child is

often "growing wild" because the teacher sees a necessity for more freedom of activity, but she does not know the evolution of the arts and is a blind leader on the trail. The kindergarten has a peculiar function and responsibility for its future development in seizing its opportunity to inaugurate a truly scientific study of the evolution of the arts.

When we pass from the kindergarten to the elementary school we find the dramatic arts, as art, in a state of intolerable confusion. Let us hark back to our previous statement that the end of these arts is to define for us values in life. These values cannot be realized when knowledge is separated from life, or word from emotion. Much less can they be realized when the ends to be obtained are themselves destroyed in the process.

For these things have happened in the school. The dance which, with music, is the lyric and choral element in the plot, has been given over to physical training. The music used with the dance has become emotionally unintelligible both by the manner in which it is played and by the out-of-tune instrument used in the average gymnasium. The folk dance, originally a dance drama among all peoples, has now become perfunctory and often degenerated into a series of mechanical movements. For except as the dance develops in relation to the drama and portrays its underlying moods, it is a sterile form. Even its expression of mood as a lyric art is lost. Some of the songs which are the choral forms of great moods in drama and in life are separated from their function. There is no emotional setting and the leader pumps out the music in cold blood. It is an agonizing process, but the result is not music. Literature is in the worst state of all. Stories are read, without discrimination, to teach the child the reading process or to point a moral that the teacher wishes especially to emphasize. Sometimes they are read for their own value, it is true, but if one follows the subject of literature through the twelve grades, there is found much teaching that shows unintelligent study of it as an art. When the children say, after a plot has been presented: "Let's play it," they are asking for the only form of presentation through which they can express all of the character-elements in that plot. Action is their important language for character-portrayal: there is the plot, a unity; and there are the several

elements which must be unified in expression. But in the school these elements are torn asunder and each is used to obtain a different end.

As the teacher has no conscious pattern for representation she has copied the only presentation she knows—the professional drama. The educational drama in whatever form should be constructed and presented for the growth of consciousness in the actors. In the professional arts, the play is given for an audience. The actor may be more or less conscious of the part, possibly conscious of the whole. But in education, every child should get as much meaning of the whole as is possible, even though the part played be small. This means that every child should participate in the emotional development of the plot at least. A stage with many of the actors behind it, and so out of the plot, is the wrong form for such presentation. The group participating should be centered toward rather than away from the play. Again, both the teacher and the children are accustomed to the narrative style in literature, and the usual custom in the school is to carry the narrative form over into the drama. Most of the dramatic readers on the market are guilty of this error in style. So the teacher spends much time drilling on words that do not fit the situation and the play seems unnatural and stilted.

How should dramatization in the first grades begin, and what parts of the plot can the children portray first? Often the teacher expects the children to play the whole plot after reading it over once in narrative form. Few trained adults could do this off-hand and it is no wonder that, oftentimes, children make more or less of a mess of it, and that several different individuals try to portray different scenes at the same time. Sometimes with a very simple plot they do remarkably well, but it is a chance stroke. A better start is made when the teacher tells the story as a dramatic narrative, with emphasis on the important parts, so that the children begin to feel the form and the characters in action. The children will take first either the action of a true chorus, or the, to them, significant parts. Take, for example, the story "The Sleeping Beauty." The narrative begins with a history of the little princess, while the drama opens with the entrance of all the people into the throne-room for the

christening. Not just the few but all the children should enter in the processional to feel the mood of it, and to become sympathetic followers of the plot, even if they have little part as the prominent characters. Again, when sleep overcomes them, it is a sleep that includes all the actors, not something on a stage that an audience watches. These are choral parts, and if the children feel them through action, they will begin to represent the individual characters with greater directness and accuracy in the thought. These underlying moods are most essential parts of the plot, and are the guides for the development of the climaxes.

This means that the dance, the music and the story should be united in the plot. Thought of off-hand it seems a formidable task for these forms are so separated in the school. But much of the material is gathered and ready to be sifted. The stories used first in the grades are folk-tales. Many collections of folk-dances and folk-music are already at hand, and this material is very usable, with a little moulding and shaping to fit the particular stories. Such discriminating use of folk-art would preserve the forms that are worthy to become classics. Especially in the dance and in the music—the folk-arts that are new in education—we have been guilty of taking the novel forms rather than the worthy. The " Ox Dance " is novel, but vulgar; the " Dall Dance " is interesting folk expression from a Swedish province, but hardly a form to be accepted in the curriculum.

While the average teacher knows the literature of the folk better than she does their lyric forms, still she does not know character in literature, as figurative expression of value. In so simple a plot as " Chicken Little," a group of teachers was much puzzled over the meaning of the story. They thought the fox ought not to be allowed to eat the chickens. They failed to see that the story is not an historical record of a barnyard incident, but rather an interpretation, in terms of characterization, of beings who lose their heads over trivial happenings, and come to grief as a result. The shrewdness of insight that made the folk use these particular symbols argues a keen acquaintance with animal life. If we do not know the meanings of the simplest plots, it is not possible for us to get even the first terms of character portrayal. It is like teaching those who are color-

blind to paint pictures. Without an interpretative understanding, all attempts to use the dramatic arts are quite worthless educationally.

To summarize briefly: we find when we come to scrutinize the curriculum:

That the artistic subjects have quite different ends from the scientific, and that a scientific training alone is not sufficient to place us *en rapport* with the arts. The results of this deficiency is great confusion in the teaching of the arts.

That a re-stating of the end of artistic development in terms of the evolutionary process is much needed. The laws through which a little child composes matter into artistic wholes in his play are suspiciously akin to the great evolutionary principles of the integration of matter.

That it is necessary to see the play-period in development from the angle of the psychologist rather than of the biologist in order to accept it as a time for the beginning of the inner organization of matter instead of a mere practice period for physical development.

That the historical development of the dramatic arts in form, method and means of expression is still an unknown term in education, and that much research and more knowledge are necessary before the introduction of these subjects in the curriculum for the little child can be intelligent and effective.

Having, however, allowed the child some freedom of expression in the school we find that we are launched into the teaching of these arts long before we know what we are doing or whither we are tending. We must find the path. And our evolutionary philosophy gives us the working basis for a scientific study of the subject. All the forms of the arts are in the school program. We are beginning to feel our inadequate grasp of the stuff at hand and are questioning its use and possible development. Out of this is slowly coming the knowledge that the arts have a definite and tangible end in education. In order to realize this aim, we must work with tools and processes that we ourselves comprehend, and have to some extent mastered. We see the futility of the older idea that mere appreciation of the arts is a preparation for the teaching of them. We must know the ends, the technique and the historical development

of any subject if we would make conscious use of it in the process of growth.

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JOURNALISM AN AGENCY FOR HOME BETTERMENT

BY MARY ELIZABETH COOLEY AND BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS

Education and journalism are related agencies and those interested in household arts instruction in the schools will do well to consider what the daily press and the magazines are doing, and what they may do, for the home betterment movement.

Today women are making their way in the general journalistic field; in University schools of journalism they are doing as good work as many of the men students and in the profession the relative proportion of women writers is increasing over that of men. One would infer at once that household subjects must be receiving adequate attention at the hands of these trained and experienced women journalists of today. On the contrary, inquiry shows that the average woman journalist is not interested in special household journalism; the dean of one of the largest University schools of journalism recently lamented the fact that among his young women students not one was interested in household arts journalism.

A study of the quality of household material in newspapers and magazines shows that much of it is trivial and often misleading, and the inquiry is therefore suggested as to whether University schools of household arts should take steps to make their students acquainted with the relations of household arts and journalism and to provide facilities for equipping occasional household arts students for service in that phase of journalism. One institution, the State College of Iowa,[1] has indeed, already recognized this need and now offers two courses in Household Economics Journalism.

The journalistic field related to the home includes the monthly or other periodicals devoted to the household and women's interests (nowadays by no means synonymous terms); the household department in the general or special periodical,—the re-

[1] United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1914, No. 38, Education for the Home, Benj. R. Andrews, Part III, p. 58.

ligious or agricultural journal, for example; and finally, the woman's page or department in the daily or weekly newspaper.

The best known type of household publication in America today is that of which the *Delineator,* the *Ladies' Home Journal,* and the *Woman's Home Companion* are examples, the large illustrated folio magazines which combine general literary material with household articles on food, clothing, shelter, household management, and the various domestic arts. *Good Housekeeping,* with its smaller pages, approximates the same general type. Important features of these household magazines are their special departments with special editors or contributors, and their correspondence service which is available for answering questions sent in by readers. The weekly inquiry mail of a large magazine numbers hundreds, often thousands, of personal letters, and the correspondence resulting from any article is regarded as a prime test of its appeal and journalistic worth. Some of the magazines have also established special services to readers; two of the best known of these are the "Good Housekeeping Institute" of the *Good Housekeeping* magazine which tests household equipment and labor saving machinery, and the "Better Babies" bureau of the *Woman's Home Companion* which organizes local groups of mothers, holds exhibits, and publishes bulletins giving information to mothers on child-care. Besides the general household magazines, one finds specialized publications devoted to practically every aspect of the home. One of these, the *Mother's Magazine,* has just announced a department for child study and training under the direction of Professor O'Shea of the University of Wisconsin.

The pertinent question is whether there is any demand on the part of these household magazines for contributions from persons professionally trained in the household arts. Mr. James E. Tower, long editor of *Good Housekeeping* and now of the *Delineator,* reports a growing demand for "scientific information written in plain language." The journalistic woman can write but does not know her household facts in an accurate way; the average household arts graduate knows her facts, but she cannot write. The opportunity, therefore, of the well-trained household expert who will learn to write in the prevailing magazine style, is obvious.

There is also the household department in the general or specialized magazine, including the religious, agricultural, and fraternal press. Practically every farm paper has its household department, and this department in several instances has improved noticeably in the last few years. A good example of what such a periodical can accomplish is the work of the *Progressive Farmer* of Raleigh, North Carolina, which has a "Home Circle Department" in charge of Mrs. W. N. Hutt. In addition to the material published in this department itself, nearly five hundred local clubs of the "United Farm Women" have been organized and supplied with material for programs, and thousands of letters on every phase of living have been answered.

In the newspaper field, many dailies have a household or woman's page, the prominence of which seems to vary in different cities—of eighteen New York papers, for example, eleven have such a department. Dr. Talcott Williams, Director of the School of Journalism of Columbia University, has said that the prominence of this department is in inverse ratio to the size of the city. Household articles in most of the smaller dailies are "syndicated material," furnished to various papers by some central agency or possibly by an individual writer who organizes her own service. One of the Philadelphia papers a couple of years ago secured household articles from teachers in various colleges which were published in leading newspapers throughout the country. In some instances, writers of popular housekeeping books have published their material in the daily press. In many papers, fashion notes and dress suggestions are given a regular place and health notes are securing increased space.

What New York State has recently done in furnishing a weekly health column to the country papers ought to be paralleled in every state by a weekly service of items on housekeeping and home-making from the department of home economics in the state college or from the local household arts teacher to the local paper. The example from New Zealand of the local district nurses' columns in country newspapers which give facts on child care and answer questions, has a suggestion for us.

Two city supervisors of household arts report experience in using a column in a local newspaper. Miss Ada A. Hillier of South Bend, Indiana, furnished a weekly article for eight months

to a local newspaper, and Miss Lilla P. Frick of Minneapolis has for nearly two years furnished articles three times a week to a local daily. Miss Frick's articles bring in numerous questions by mail and over the phone and make the supervisor's office almost a city bureau of information for housekeepers.

After an examination of the leading household magazines and the related departments in many magazines and newspapers, and after interviews with several journalists interested in this field, the following inferences seem justified:

1. Journalistic writing on home questions is largely being done by women without any technical training.

2. Fashion notes and especially fashion drawings seem to bring better prices than recipes or menus.

3. "Space work" often brings better returns than a position on the regular staff of a newspaper.

4. Magazine work pays better than newspaper work in home economics subjects.

5. There is a growing demand for scientifically accurate articles, but editors complain that the scientifically trained person writes over the heads of their readers.

6. Very few domestic science teachers are reaching the public through the press although a small number are doing it and doing it exceedingly well.

7. Many of the magazines today are doing really excellent work in teaching household arts to their readers, and in arousing public interest.

COLLEGE NEWS AND DEPARTMENTAL NOTES

TRUSTEES MAKE NEW AGREEMENT WITH THE UNIVERSITY

A new agreement defining the relations between Columbia University and Teachers College was made early in June between the Trustees of the two corporations. This new agreement is a more satisfactory and effective instrument than the one which it supersedes, the latter having been drafted in 1900 in a spirit of prophecy, while this latest one rests upon fifteen years of experience. It takes account of the rapid growth and complex intercorporate relations which have taken place in recent years, and deals with them in terms so precise and so definite as to reduce to a minimum the possibility of future misunderstanding.

The agreement provides that the President of the University shall be *ex-officio* the executive head of Teachers College, with the powers and duties of President, as now defined by the statutes of Teachers College. By this arrangement the College has the closest co-operation of the President of the University in its affairs and thus secures his active interest and professional counsel. The Dean of Teachers College shall be appointed by the Trustees of Teachers College, and shall have charge of the internal administration of the college and the management of its property and affairs as heretofore. All officers of Teachers College will be appointed by the Trustees of the College, on nomination of the Dean, subject to the approval of the President of the University. The appointment of officers of professorial grade will be confirmed by the Trustees of the University, thus giving them full University status.

The two faculties of Teachers College—the Faculty of Edu-

cation and the Faculty of Practical Arts—become, under the new agreement, faculties of the University, with the same rights and privileges as other faculties of the University. This gives both faculties of Teachers College representation on the University Council, the supreme educational authority of the University. In securing these privileges for its faculties, Teachers College has made a distinct gain, the value of which will be increasingly apparent as time goes on.

Under the new agreement the University will, as heretofore, confer the degrees of Bachelor of Science and Master of Arts upon Teachers College students. For students working under the direction of the Teachers College faculties there will be also an appropriate Doctor's degree, differing in its requirements from the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This is an important innovation, calculated to center the interests of the Teachers College faculties on professional work and giving to the University Faculty of Philosophy the control of those students who elect to emphasize pure scholarship for the work of the present degree of Doctor of Philosophy. To carry out this new plan there is to be established in the Faculty of Philosophy a department of Educational Research, under the direction of a relatively small number of professors chosen by the President from the Faculty of Education, this new department to have charge of candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with Education as their major interest. Candidates for the new Doctor's degree, the exact title of which has not yet been decided upon, will work under the direction of the Teachers College faculties, stressing the professional phases of teaching and educational administration rather than the academic phases of the subject.

On the financial side it is agreed that neither corporation shall seek to make money from its dealings with the other, and that each shall be financially independent and responsible for its own work.

Teachers College students shall be free as heretofore to elect courses in other parts of the University; University students shall have corresponding privileges in Teachers College. Students will pay for all work taken on the point system, and each corporation will receive all fees earned from its own courses. In this way the gross income of tuition fees from all Teachers

College courses, both during the academic year and in the summer session, will be paid to Teachers College, thus becoming available at once for the support of its work. A similar satisfactory adjustment has been made for the payment of special fees, such as the University and graduation fees.

The Summer Session is to remain independent of all faculty control, to be conducted as heretofore by a director and an administrative board, upon which Teachers College shall have adequate representation. Teachers College shall co-operate in the direction of the summer session in proportion to the number of students it serves.

In making the above arrangements with the University, Teachers College surrenders none of its corporate rights or powers, and by the agreement the Trustees of the College shall continue to provide for the financial support of all the work of the College, the University having no implied obligation, responsibility or liability of any kind whatsoever for the maintenance or management of Teachers College or for the disbursement of the income thereof. Each corporation remains financially independent and obligated to conduct its own business affairs, including the appointment of officers and the assignment of their duties. Educationally the two institutions are more fully merged and thus better able to promote the solidarity of the entire University.

PROFESSOR SUZZALLO ACCEPTS PRESIDENCY OF UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

Dr. Henry Suzzallo, professor of the Philosophy of Education, after a connection of fourteen years with Teachers College, resigned in May to accept the presidency of the University of Washington at Seattle where his duties commenced July 1.

Professor Suzzallo was born at San José, California, in 1875. He graduated at the California State Normal School in 1895; took the degree of Bachelor of Arts at Leland Stanford Junior University in 1899; and pursued graduate study at Teachers College in 1901-2 and 1903-4 for which he received in 1902 from Columbia University the degree of Master of Arts and in 1905 the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy. He held a fellowship at Teachers College for 1903-4.

In California Professor Suzzallo has held several important

educational positions; he was principal of schools, 1896-7 and 1899-1901; deputy superintendent of schools in San Francisco, 1903, 1904, and 1907; instructor and assistant professor of education at Stanford University, 1902-7; instructor and lecturer, state normal schools, San Francisco, 1902-3, and San José, 1905-7.

On the staff of Teachers College Professor Suzzallo has served in most all of the general educational departments of the institution. In 1902 he was assistant in secondary education under Dr. Elmer E. Brown. In 1904-5 he was acting head of the department of elementary education giving courses for Professor McMurry, then absent on leave. From 1907-9 he was adjunct profesor of elementary education again taking charge of Professor McMurry's courses and acting as consulting adviser for the Horace Mann Elementary School; he also lectured on the principles of education in connection with the required course on the history of education. For one year he gave courses in educational psychology, acting for one semester as Professor Thorndike's substitute. In 1909 Professor Suzzallo was appointed to the newly established chair of Educational Sociology taking the title of Professor of Philosophy of Education, with a seat in the Faculty of Political Science as well as in Teachers College. For the last six years his work has been restricted to the sociological aspects of education in which field he has been a pioneer.

Professor Suzzallo has been since 1909 editor of the *Riverside Educational Monographs;* he is co-author of the Walsh-Suzzallo series of arithmetics; and has contributed many important articles and studies to educational periodicals.

Professor Suzzallo is widely known to the alumni of Teachers College. His classes have been large and his courses varied in character. Many who were not under his instruction have had personal contact with him as an administrative officer. For six years he was a member of the faculty Committee on Instruction, and for two years chairman of the graduate committee in charge of accrediting graduate work done in other institutions. During Dean Russell's absence in Europe he was Acting Dean and at the time of his resignation was a member of the Executive Committee of the Faculty.

Teachers College will lose much in Dr. Suzzallo's going. His knowledge of many educational fields, his studies in various special departments of the School of Education, and above all, his practical habit of mind in dealing with school questions, have been of great value to all who have been associated with him in various capacities. He integrated the thinking of his students in terms of practical problems and issues, using his own varied experiences in school work as means of illustration. His whole point of view was functional rather than academic.

His resignation has been accepted with sincere regret; yet, realizing the great possibilities of the new and important position to which he has been called, his many friends in Teachers College can but speed him on his way with heartiest wishes for his success and happiness.

Provision for Professor Suzzallo's courses at Teachers College has been made as follows: For the Summer Session the work will be given by Dr. John W. Withers, director of the Harris Teachers College, St. Louis; for the first semester of the academic year one section of Education 291 will be given by Professor Kilpatrick under the title "Social Foundations of the School System"; the other section of Education 291 will be given the first semester by Professor John Dewey in conjunction with Professor Dewey's regular course, the two courses being combined under the title "The School and Society." For the second semester Professor Suzzallo's work will be given by Professor Cubberley who has secured leave of absence from his position at Leland Stanford Junior University for this purpose.

THE WOMEN'S FACULTY CLUB

About three years ago a number of women on the faculty of Teachers College, desiring wider opportunity for social as well as intellectual intercourse, planned the establishment of a club to be known as the Women's Faculty Club of Columbia University. The membership has been enlarged to include graduate women who are doing resident work or carrying a full program. The great advantages of such an organization have been keenly realized by the club members. The graduate members appreciate the opportunity of meeting and knowing the women on the faculty, and they in turn have been able to entertain

their colleagues and friends as well as groups of students in the different departments.

Professor Adelaide Nutting was the first president, followed by Professor Willystine Goodsell who held office for two years. Professor Naomi Norsworthy has been elected president for the coming year.

The housing of the club for the first two years was generously provided by Mrs. Helen Hartley Jenkins, one of the Teachers College Trustees, who gave the use of a very pleasant apartment on Morningside Drive. The distance from the college, however, proved something of a drawback and in October, 1914, two apartments were secured in the Lowell, 501 West 120th street. On the ground floor is a well-lighted sitting room with magazines, writing tables and stationery; dressing room and three attractive tea rooms for the use of the members. The floor above has sunny dining rooms and kitchen; and in adjoining apartments ten bedrooms, which are all engaged for the coming year. The furnishings throughout are simple and in excellent taste. Professor Dow has loaned three of his beautiful oil paintings for the club rooms, and a student has framed several Japanese prints also loaned by the art department. Tea is served every afternoon from four to six, and the dining rooms furnish three meals daily. From October to May over thirty reservations of the tea rooms were made by members for evening social affairs, with activities ranging from lectures and club meetings to games; and many little dinner parties have enjoyed the dining rooms.

The annual membership fee for faculty members is ten dollars a year; for graduate students eligible to membership, five dollars.

For the benefit of the summer session faculty and graduate women, the club rooms will be open from Thursday, July 1st to Saturday evening, August 14th. The summer fee for a faculty member (not already a member of the club), is five dollars, and for an eligible graduate student two dollars and fifty cents. The dining and tea rooms will be open constantly and it is hoped that many women will avail themselves of the privileges of the club with its pleasant accommodations and refreshing table service during the summer session. The club reopens for the academic year on September 20th.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

During April and May Professors Hillegas and Briggs made a survey of the fifteen schools that receive aid from the Samuel Jeanes' Fund of the Philadelphia Yearly Meeting of Friends. After the inspection of each school, conferences were held with the principal and teachers, and on May 20, a report with constructive recommendations was submitted at a meeting of the trustees of the fund. Earlier in the year Professors Hillegas and Briggs together made a similar survey of the Friends' Central School System of Philadelphia, and Dr. Briggs made a survey of the Kent School for Boys in Connecticut.

Professor Hillegas in June made a survey of the educational work at Sing Sing prison with a view to the reorganization of that work for the coming year. Professor McMurry will be on sabbatical leave for the academic year 1915-16.

FINE ARTS

New Types of Work Shown at Annual Exhibit

The fine arts department in its annual exhibit this year showed some extremely interesting products of its new courses in Mr. Martin's junior drawing and painting, Mr. Preissig's work in linoleum printing, and Miss Tannahill's class in lettering.

Mr. Martin's work is after the new modernist school, the art that seeks essence rather than form, interpretation rather than faithful representation. The results of this first year's training in a type of work so entirely new to Teachers College students are highly gratifying to Professor Dow. According to Mr. Martin, modernist painting must be preceded by ordinary symmetrical drawing by the student. In other words, rules must be learned before they can be departed from. The exhibit showed, therefore, not only paintings of this new character, but also drawings of the old style,—symmetrical, detailed, precise. One of the color experiments of particular interest in this interpretative painting is that of "optical mixtures," a process by which the mixing of colors to produce another color, is left to the eye, rather than mixed on the palette; green foliage, for example, may be represented by intermingling splotches of blue

and yellow. The exhibit showed these modernist studies done in all mediums,—oil, chalk, tempora, water color.

Mr. Preissig's class in linoleum printing exhibited some remarkable prints of book pages, landscapes, illustrations, posters. Linoleum printing is a recent substitute for wood printing and is as successful in results and, because of the softness of the linoleum, much easier of process. The department has a new hand press which prints the cuts from the linoleum block, in one or many colors. The three-color process was the one most worked with this year.

Miss Tannahill has emphasized in this, the first lettering class at Teachers College, the principle of design, which is, as a matter of fact, the keynote of the whole department of fine arts. Spacing, line, rhythm, tone, color, dark-and-light,—all the underlying principles of art structure are observed, even in the lettering of one word. Lettering, as used today, is merely a means of communicating information; the fine arts department believes that it should be an art phase governed by art principles. The class did book plates, posters in full color, and as practical problems, the new TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD cover, and the cover for the Y. W. C. A. calendar.

The senior class did some experimental work in interpretation under the influence of music: the mood or impression created by the music was set down as the expression of that musical influence. Another new idea was presented when a painting class was told to use the same design three times creating in color three different effects, the brilliant, the subtle, the mysterious. The color combinations resulting from this problem were unusually beautiful and entirely significant.

HOUSEHOLD ADMINISTRATION

Professor Gunther made during the second semester some very interesting visits to schools and colleges for the purpose of studying the work they are doing. In the spring, she visited Drexel Institute at Philadelphia, and a number of school lunch rooms. At Washington she visited the McKinley High School, and several home schools. Two very profitable days were spent at Hampton Institute, where the students are doing

splendid work. In Baltimore she visited with Miss Letitia Weer, who is in charge of the rural school work in Baltimore County. This trip also included a visit to Sparks Agricultural High School, where Miss Latem, a Teachers College alumna, is in charge of the home economics department.

During the month of June Miss Gunther took a trip through the Middle West, visiting the Mechanics Institute, Western Reserve University, University of Illinois, Chicago University, and the State College of Agriculture at Ames, Iowa.

The department has been rapidly increasing the strength of its graduate work, and some very interesting problems in institutional administration have been worked out, such as equipment and management of high school lunch rooms; organization of different types of tearooms; principles of various kinds of household equipment; household efficiency engineering; testing equipment for a laundry; rural visiting housekeeping. Special studies have also been made in sanitation and economics.

Miss Mabel Reed has gone to Cincinnati to take up her work as supervisor of housekeeping in the new Cincinnati hospital. Miss Josephine Leverett is supervisor of laundry in the same hospital. This is a large new hospital just built, having a capacity of about 800 beds. It is to be used as a training field for the students in the University working under Mrs. Ann Gilchrist Strong.

Miss Marion Dickenson has been assistant in Whittier Hall to Miss Southard during the early part of the summer. During the remainder of the summer she will take charge of the dietaries and general housekeeping at the Orthopedic Hospital, White Plains, N. Y., while Miss Root is absent.

Miss Anne Dudley Blitz, A. M., who has been affiliated with the department as an instructor, goes next year to Hobart College, where she will be dean of women at William Smith College.

Miss Leila Caldwell, 1915, has been appointed director of Sage College, Cornell University.

Miss Bertha Holden will take Miss Reed's place in Whittier Hall, as second assistant in the household department.

Miss Treen will have charge of Horace Mann lunch room during the absence of Miss Leonard.

MATHEMATICS

The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace has just issued an interesting pamphlet entitled "Problems About War for Classes in Arithmetic." This was prepared by Professor David Eugene Smith, of the department of mathematics, and will be sent to any teacher who requests a copy. Letters should be addressed to The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 407 West 117th Street, New York City.

The Endowment has offered a series of prizes for the best problems relating to war. The pamphlet has been prepared, not with any purpose of taking sides in the present controversy, nor of opposing any reasonable preparation for national defense in this country. The sole purpose is to bring before pupils at an impressionable age some idea of their responsibilty for a wiser use of money on the part of the whole world than that which looks for a model to the present vast expenditures for armaments.

The problems are arranged under various captions which will strike the mind of the pupil; namely, The Cost of War; Guns and Colleges; War Expenses and Our Pleasures; Battleships and Schools; The Financial Cost of War; War's Subsequent Financial Burdens; the Financial War Problem of Nations; The Human Sacrifice of War; Cost of Saving and of Destroying Human Life; Battleships and Teachers; Losses Occasioned by Rumors of War.

The International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics has recently issued, through the Bureau of Education at Washington, an important bulletin on the teaching of elementary and secondary mathematics in all the leading countries of the world. This bulletin, No. 45, 1914, was prepared by J. C. Brown, and sets forth the nature of the mathematics taught in every school year, from the first through the twelfth, in the standard type of school. It should be in the hands of every teacher of mathematics, and may be secured by addressing the United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

In the practicum in the teaching of mathematics several graduate students, under the direction of Professor Upton, have been pursuing some interesting experimental studies relating to the teaching of algebra. One experiment has dealt with the measure-

ment of the difficulty of problems in algebra in accordance with a method recently developed by Professor Thorndike. A list of problems which had been arranged in the order of difficulty on the basis of the judgments of two hundred teachers of algebra was given by the students of the practicum to a number of pupils in the New York High Schools, with the request that the problems be worked. On the basis of the pupils' papers, the problems were again arranged in order of difficulty. It is of interest that the order of difficulty determined by the pupils coincides almost exactly with that determined in advance by the teachers.

Another group of students in the practicum gave another set of problems to a large number of high school pupils with a view to measuring the interest of pupils in the various types of problems. The list given contained some abstract problems in factoring, multiplication and equations; some modern concrete problems and some old-fashioned concrete problems. The result showed the pupils most interested in the modern concrete problems and least interested in the abstract problems. On the basis of this work the problems were arranged in order of interest and also in order of difficulty. It is worthy of note that the order of difficulty coincided in very few respects with the order of interest. Problems which most of the pupils could work were in many cases the least interesting; often a problem was judged most interesting which could be worked by comparatively few pupils. There appeared to be little relation between interest and difficulty. Further experiments are planned for the coming academic year.

NURSING AND HEALTH

Three very interesting special evening courses have been given during the past year by this department for the benefit of nurses who are engaged in regular hospital work and are therefore unable to enter the regular classes in the department. These courses were open to nurses occupied in some form of public health work, such as visiting nursing, school nursing, tuberculosis work and social service. They were also open to supervisors and teachers in training schools. A course of lectures and discussions dealing with current problems in training school

work was given by Professor Goodrich. The second course, given by Miss Stewart, was on teaching of nursing principles and methods. The third course of lectures and demonstration on the practical aspects of abnormal mental states was given by Dr. Louis E. Bisch. These courses were very well attended.

The department will offer this fall in conjunction with the Henry Street Settlement, and the City Health Department, a program of theoretical and practical work in public health nursing, designed primarily to meet the needs of students without previous experience, who wish a maximum of practical work. The course will extend throughout the academic year. The work of the first semester will include observation of visiting nursing as carried on in the Henry Street Settlement and lecture courses by prominent educators and civic servants on social problems, municipal sanitation, use of preventive medicine, food economics, and principles of public health nursing with weekly excursions. The second semester will be devoted to practical work under supervision of the Settlement and the Charity Organization Society with numerous student and staff conferences.

Miss Kruger, a graduate of the department of nursing and health who has been in Serbia all winter in charge of the Red Cross Unit, has returned to America. Miss Kruger has been very ill with typhus fever.

Miss Lehmann who has been at Pau, France, in charge of Red Cross Unit A went to Serbia when the typhus epidemic broke out.

Miss V. N. Macdonald, secretary of the Mental Hygiene Association of New Haven and a former student in this department, has been given leave of absence for several months for service at the front in France.

Among the important appointments of students of the department are the following:

Bessie Ammerman, B.S., 1913, has been appointed superintendent of nurses at Henry Street Settlement, New York City, and Anne Ewing is to be supervisor of nursing at the same settlement.

M. F. Laird has a position in connection with the family welfare work of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

Grace Allison, 1915, has been appointed principal of the training school at the Lakeside Hospital, Cleveland.

Mrs. Clark is superintendent of nurses at the Robert W. Lang Hospital at Indianapolis, which is affiliated with the University of Indiana.

Miss H. Eklund will return to Finland as instructor in the hospital connected with the University of Helsingfors.

Miss Johns will be superintendent of nurses at the Children's Hospital, Winnipeg, Canada.

Miss Dorothy McKee has been appointed instructor in the Cincinnati Hospital, Cincinnati. Miss Stevens is to be superintendent of the Brooklyn Maternity Hospital. Miss Mary Harold will be superintendent of nurses at the Metropolitan Hospital, Blackwell's Island.

Several dietitians have been appointed: Ethel Wiberly in St. Faith's Home, Tarrytown, N. Y.; Clara Williams, M.A., 1915, at St. Luke's Hospital, New York City; Mrs. Jennie D. Wood in the Pennsylvania Hospital, Philadelphia; Eleanor Wells, assistant at John Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore; Hannah Corbet in the Seaside Hospital, Staten Island, N. Y.

DRAMATIC INTERESTS AT TEACHERS COLLEGE

The increasing interest in various aspects of dramatic work at the College, as well as the great amount of talent and expert information on the subject scattered through the various departments, has led to a project, now about to be put into effect, for bringing together all persons whose interests touch the drama, in a general association of dramatic arts. Experiments in cooperation between departments, as in the Festival and the several undergraduate plays, and between the College and the Horace Mann School in two recent plays, have shown the existence among us of more ability in acting, costuming, stage-setting, and related matters, and more widespread enthusiasm for them, than had perhaps been generally recognized. In the general education groups there is developing an appreciation of the social significance of dramatic work for the school and for the community that would seem to add educational importance to the attempt to strengthen them and consolidate such work here, and to make its results easily available for the help of teachers in the field.

The new organization, as now planned by a committee of students and faculty, will draw together in a spirit of co-operation such interests in the College as are suggested above, as well as representatives of all classes and clubs who give plays. Under the general direction of a central committee or council, sub-committees, each with its own chairman and program, will undertake such projects in the field of dramatic arts as any groups of students may choose to devote time to. Among those already started, or in demand, are the production of class or club plays; the training of students to coach them; the formation of a collection of plays suitable for school and college performance, and of a lending library of annotated prompt-books of such plays as are known to be successful; the conducting of the annual festival; the designing of scenery and costumes; the simplification of methods of school production; and many other projects, which the RECORD will describe more fully as they develop. At general meetings of the club will be presented such results of the group work as have sufficient interest. The central committee will, in return for valuable assistance the club offers in play production, expect all college plays that affiliate with it to conform to certain principles in distribution of dates, in limitation of expenditure of time and money, and in keeping records, such as prompt-books, that can be lent to schools.

For the coming year, the committee has under consideration a Shakespeare Festival, in connection with a projected exhibition of books, illustrative material, and current educational practice related to Shakespeare in education. There are so many ways in which the several departments could contribute to the staging, the costuming, and the production of such a festival, through the literature, the music, the dances and games, the costuming and food of the period, and otherwise, and the results might be so generally useful to alumni of the College, that a plan has found favor of holding the celebration, should it take this character, during Alumni Week.

During the summer, plans both for the new dramatic arts club and for the festival will crystallize more definitely; meanwhile, readers of the RECORD are invited to express their opinions

regarding both projects, addressing the Committee on Dramatic Organization, Box 133, Teachers College.

THE ROMANCERS

The performance by the Sophomore class on April thirtieth, May first, and May seventh of Rostand's "The Romancers" marked in some ways a new departure in Teachers College dramatics.

First, the production aimed to be creative,—amateur in the better sense. Stage tradition was cast aside, including the eighteenth century costume, and the arrangement of the wall splitting the stage which at first seemed essential to the action. A student in the Fine Arts department, Mr. A. W. Sovey, under the inspiration of the modern art-stage movement, designed original settings and costumes which were worked out in various departments of the college. The costumes were not of any special period, but suggested the spirit of the various characters, from the yellow-green filmy dress of Sylvette to coarse burlap of the gardener, the tropical orange of the sedan-chair bearers, and the sweeping cloak of Straforel the swordsman. An efficient committee of the class cut and stitched these costumes, producing at an expense of little over a dollar each much more artistic effects than could be had from a professional costumer.

The staging was arranged as simply as possible,—a neutral background for the action, with the wall, which plays so important a part, running lengthwise of the stage. Throughout the first act, the movement was back and forth along the wall, either in Percinet's garden on the front stage, or in Bergamin's, raised a couple of feet so that actors' heads and shoulders would show above the greenery. In act two, when the wall is supposed to be down, the central panel was removed and the two trees shifted to the rear, as in the frontispiece and to carry out the idea of the two gardens thrown into one, the action was chiefly up and down the terrace.

A further step towards making the college dramatics educationally valuable was in the preparation of a prompt book, with costume sketches and full accounts of all details of management, which with a similar book of the junior play, "Greenstockings," forms the nucleus of the lending library of prompt

books just being formed by the National English Council. Arrangements have been made for extending the privileges of the library to Teachers College students and graduates: by addressing Professor Allan Abbott, those interested can learn details.

ADMINISTRATION CLUB

The Administration Club has had a very successful year—the first of its existence. An enlivening banquet was held in January, at which Clifford Woody made an excellent toastmaster in his happy introductions, and intelligence and wit freely flowed in the replies. The Dean and Mrs. Russell were present, and Dr. Strayer was the honored speaker of the evening. This club has an interesting personnel, being composed of men, and a few women, engaged in the study of large supervisory and administrative school problems, its most helpful feature being the open meetings and free spirited discussions.

At the March meeting, Dr. John Dewey spoke on Vocational Education in its Relation to School Administration, followed by questions and discussion; and at the April meeting Chancellor Elmer E. Brown of New York University talked on Some Elements of Success. The club is formulating a plan by which sufficient information regarding vacancies in educational positions will be centered in Teachers College to obviate the necessity of our graduates having recourse to commercial teachers' agencies.

The social side of the Administration Club has not been neglected. Monthly meetings—which in a less august body might be called picnics—have been held, and the woods near Dr. Strayer's house were the scene of one such gathering in May at which over a hundred were present. Athletic sports, in which a men's and a women's ball game were distinct features, preceded a delightfully informal dinner. Mr. Fred A. Nims, the president, has been a most active administrator, and the club is planning for another interesting year.

NURSES CLUB

The Nurses Club has had an active membership of forty for the past college year and has held most interesting and well attended monthly meetings. Among the speakers were Pro-

fessors Nutting, Whitley and Goodsell of our own College faculty, Dr. Coe of Union Theological Seminary and Dr. McKewin of Rush Medical School. Miss Livingston and Miss Steen-Hansen who had done war nursing in Belgium and Serbia also gave particularly timely and helpful information as to conditions in those countries. They had come to the United States to collect funds for the relief of the distressed Serbians and were returning to the fight against typhus. Miss Eisenhardt told of nursing in Austria with the Red Cross; and Miss Van Sickle of her duties when stationed with the American ambulance in Paris and Neuilly.

PRACTICAL ARTS FEDERATION

At a recent mass meeting the undergraduate students of the School of Practical Arts voted unanimously in favor of the general plan for closer association of the four college classes that now have entirely independent organizations. An organizing committee was appointed and instructed to draft a constitution and make nominations for officers. This committee has practically completed its work and will report in full at a mass meeting to be held on Thursday, October 7th, at twelve o'clock.

The general plan of the new association is based on the idea of a federation of the four college classes with the proposed name, Practical Arts Federation. The unity of the four classes is to be preserved and the Federation will deal only with affairs that concern two or more of the four classes. There is to be an executive committee of six voting members—president, four vice-presidents, and secretary-treasurer. There will be one or two faculty members without vote. The president and secretary-treasurer are to be elected from the student body at large and the presidents of the four classes are to be *ex officio* vice-presidents of the Federation.

The proposed Federation in no way conflicts with the Students' Executive Council of Teachers College. That will continue to be the governing board of all student affairs. Like all other organizations in the College, the Federation will have no official representative in the reorganized council, but it happens that the committee on reorganization of the Council has proposed that the four class presidents shall represent in the

Council the undergraduate students in the School of Practical Arts. Thus, the four class presidents will have influence in both Council and Federation.

The whole plan of the Federation is heartily approved by leading students and the Faculty of Practical Arts. It bids fair to solve many of the student problems that have grown up in the School of Practical Arts.

RECENT DOCTOR'S DISSERTATION

Robert A. F. McDonald, who received his Doctor's degree in June has been working on an important problem, the title of his dissertation being " The Adjustment of School Organization to Various Population Groups." Mr. McDonald deals with those groups which deviate more or less and in various ways from the normal, and his problem is to discover how far educational opportunity has been equalized; to what extent a democratic theory of education has been fulfilled in practice; and to note the forces by which this increased sensitiveness of school organization has been effected. His very interesting study covers provision for the deaf, the juvenile delinquent, unruly and truant, the blind, dependent and neglected children, the feeble-minded, retarded and epileptic, speech defectives and cripples. There are also chapters on the work of the schools for non-English speaking immigrants and on open air schools. At the other end of the scale Mr. McDonald gives a study of provision for the exceptionally gifted child, a type which has perhaps been neglected more than any other.

He traces the growing appreciaton on the part of educators of the necessity for wider and more radical adjustment in the school system to meet the needs of special groups of variates in the population; and forecasts an occupational survey for the subnormal types which, if carried out, will work lasting benefit to the individual as well as to the school and society.

ALUMNI ACTIVITIES

MARYLAND TEACHERS COLLEGE CLUB

The final meeting of the year for the Teachers College Club of Maryland was held the evening of May 29th in the Girls' Latin School. The sixty club members had as their dinner guests Professors Strayer and Norsworthy from the College, and President Goodnow and Drs. Welch and Buchner from Hopkins. Retiring President Porter, acting as toastmaster, paid a fine tribute to the work of Alma Mater, pleading that as a leader to whom many looked, Teachers College should lay more stress on the training of college teachers, and emphasize the great need of the ethical and moral in education. President Goodnow and Drs. Welch and Strayer spoke of the added dignity of departments of education in this country, and the broader opportunities for service in the teaching field, a fact they accredited to the work of Teachers College. Current news of the College was reported by Dr. Norsworthy and Miss Lida L. Tall, late chosen Alumni Trustee, outlined the duties of her new position. The new officers of the club are Mr. David Wegland, president; Mrs. J. W. Brown, vice-president, and Miss Anna Jean Gannett, secretary-treasurer.

MINNESOTA ALUMNI ASSOCIATION AWARDS SCHOLARSHIP

The scholarship committee of the Minnesota Branch of the Teachers College Alumni Association has awarded the first scholarship established by the association to Miss Myrtle Reed. Miss Reed is president of the Grade Teachers Association of Minneapolis. This scholarship amounts to fifty dollars and is awarded on condition that the holder attend the summer session at Teachers College.

BUTLER MEDAL AWARDED TO PROFESSOR CUBBERLEY

Dr. Ellwood Patterson Cubberley, professor of education at Leland Stanford Junior University, has been awarded the Butler silver medal for his contributions to educational administration. Professor Cubberley graduated at Indiana University in 1891. He took the degree of Master of Arts at Teachers College in 1902 and the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1905. He was associate professor of education at Leland Stanford Junior University from 1898-1906, and has been full professor in the same institution since 1906. Professor Cubberley directed the Portland, Oregon, school survey in 1913. He lectured at Chicago University in 1910, at Harvard University in 1910-11, and at Columbia University in the summer of 1914. For the second semester of the academic year 1915-16 he has leave of absence from Stanford University to lecture at Teachers College giving the courses in Educational Sociology formerly given by Professor Suzzallo. He is the author of a number of important books on education, including "School Funds and their Apportionment," "Changing Conceptions of Education," and "Rural Life and Education."

The Butler silver medal, which has just been awarded him, is awarded annually to that graduate of Columbia University in any of its parts who has during the year preceding shown the most competence in philosophy or in educational theory, practice or administration.

PROFESSOR COFFMAN APPOINTED DEAN AT UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Dr. Lotus D. Coffman, professor of education in the University of Illinois, was in June elected dean of the School of Education of the University of Minnesota. Profesor Coffman was born at Salem, Indiana, in 1875. He received the A. B. degree from the Indiana State University in 1906, and the A. M. degree from the same institution in 1910. He took graduate work at Teachers College during the years 1909-11, receiving in 1911 from Columbia University the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and the Doctor's Diploma. Professor Coffman was

superintendent of schools in Indiana from 1896-1907 and supervisor of the Training School at Charleston, Illinois, for 1907-09 and 1911-12. He accepted a professorship of Education at the University of Illinois in 1912 which position he held up to the time of his latest appointment at the University of Minnesota. He is the author of "The Social Composition of the Teaching Population" and co-author of "Reading in Public Schools" and "How to Teach Arithmetic."

DR. PROSSER BECOMES DIRECTOR OF THE DUNWOODY INSTITUTE

Dr. Charles A. Prosser, Secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, was in May appointed director of the William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute of the city of Minneapolis. Mr. Dunwoody, who was a wealthy flour manufacturer in Minneapolis, left a large estate which included a grant of more than $3,000,000 for a school to be known as the William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute. This school is to give instruction in industrial and mechanical arts including as of special importance the art of milling and the construction of milling machinery. Dr. Prosser was a graduate student at Teachers College from 1908-10, receiving the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in June, 1915. From 1910-12 he was deputy commissioner of education for the State of Massachusetts. In 1912 he was appointed secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education which position he held up to the time of his present appointment in Minneapolis. Dr. Prosser is the author of several important books on vocational education, a topic to which he has given special attention for a number of years and upon which he is acknowledged one of the leading authorities. Last February he was appointed Associate in Vocational Education at Teachers College for 1915-16 and lecturer in vocational education for the Summer Session of 1915, both of which positions he resigned on accepting his new position at Minneapolis.

GRACE DODGE STUDENT WELFARE FUND

In May the students of Teachers College made contributions of about $1,400 to the Grace Dodge Student Welfare Fund.

The staff of Teachers College made contributions of about $1,000. At the time of going to press the alumni of the college are being solicited for contributions the amount of which will be reported in the next number of the RECORD.

Great interest has been shown in the Grace Dodge Welfare Fund by all whose attention it has reached. The Fund has meant much more to students in need and in ill health than has been generally realized. Over fifty cases of illness and distress among students were relieved the past year at Teachers College by this Welfare Fund, all among students unable financially to meet such emergencies. This Fund was entirely provided by Miss Grace Dodge up to the time of her death. For this work alone she sometimes gave as much as $5,000 a year. With her death this work no longer has support.

The Trustees of the College have made a number of substantial contributions to supplement the contributions already made, in order that the Fund may be placed upon a permanent foundation. Contributions to the Fund should be addressed to the Treasurer of Teachers College, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

APPOINTMENTS

The following appointments have been made for the coming year:

Anna O. Bromley, A. M., 1915, instructor in psychology, Drexel Institute, Philadelphia.

Rose F. Egan, A. M., formerly assistant in English at Teachers College, will be instructor in English at Smith College.

Benjamin W. Bailey, A. M., 1915, has a position in education in Frederick County, Maryland, dividing his time between the county schools, Hood College, and extension teaching.

Marion Hanckel will have charge of the kindergarten in Peabody College during the summer and will be primary supervisor in Knoxville, Tenn., next winter.

Hannah Kieffer will be superintendent of instruction at Hope Farm, Verbank, Dutchess County, where children difficult to handle at home are sent. The work is largely preventive.

Leon Argetsinger will be the executive head of the Boy Scouts in Paterson, N. J.

Frances Clark will give courses in pedagogical methods and Leila Cobb will supervise the training work, both in State Normal School at Edinboro, Pa. Miss Cobb has been primary assistant in the Horace Mann School and Miss Clark has been assisting Miss Phelps with the open air roof class.

Corinne Brown, A. M., 1915, goes to Iowa State College, Cedar Falls, as supervisor of kindergarten education.

Kate Kelly, formerly in Harrisonburg, Va. State Normal School, will be first grade critic teacher at State Normal School, Mount Pleasant, Mich.

Mrs. Katharine Cook has been appointed an inspector of rural schools by the U. S. Bureau of Education.

Helen Strong, formerly teacher in the Speyer School, goes to the East Carolina Teachers Training School, Greenville, N. C., as primary critic and teacher in education.

Ida Bennett, B. S., 1915, formerly third grade critic teacher in the Speyer School will be critic of third and fourth grades at the State Normal in Warrensburg, Mo.

Frederick Woellner, eighth grade critic in the Speyer School, will teach education and pedagogy in the State Normal at Buffalo.

Louis Burch, who was formerly teacher of manual training in the Horace Mann School and assistant to Dr. Bonser in industrial arts, has received the appointment of principal of the Industrial School and supervisor of industrial education in the public school system of Asbury Park, N. J.

C. Homer Bean, Ph. D., who was for several years assistant professor of educational psychology at Terre Haute State Normal School, now goes to the Louisiana State University at Baton Rouge, where he begins work this summer.

Charles Meek, A. M., who has been superintendent of schools in Boise, Idaho, will hold the same position next year in San Antonio, Tex.; while Clinton E. Rose, who studied at Teachers College in the winter of 1913-14 and was principal of a high school in Boise, has been advanced to the position of superintendent vacated by Mr. Meek.

James McConaughy, Ph. D., professor of secondary education at Bowdoin College will hold the same position at Dartmouth College for the coming year, and William V. Bingham goes from the Dartmouth position to head the educational work at Carnegie Institute, Pittsburg.

Joseph A. T. Williams has a position in the department of education at Wilmington College, Wilmington, O.

DOMESTIC ART

Alice Blair, B. S., 1915, State Normal School at Kalamazoo, Mich.

Nellie McCown, State Normal School, Bellingham, Washington.

Agnes Puddington, B. S., 1915, University of Maine, Orono, Me.

Mary Rose, B. S., 1915, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Ind.

Katherine Rutledge, B. S., 1914, Iowa State College, Iowa City.

Nellie A. Saunders, Salem College, Salem, West Va.

Grace Lantz, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo.

Elizabeth I. Lathrop, State Normal School, Normal, Ill.

Carrie A. Dickson, B. S., 1915, State Normal School, Natchitoches, La.

Julia Gleason, Rockford College, Rockford, Ill.

Juliette Endley, B. S., 1915, High School, Elyria, Ohio.

Gladys Beckett, California State Normal School, Los Angeles, Cal. She will also teach domestic science.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE

Sarah Sinclair Ormsby, State Normal School, Bellingham, Washington.

Christine South, B. S., 1915, State Normal and Industrial School, Greensboro, N. C.

Esther Warner, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.

Maude Weymouth, High School, Sacramento, Cal.

Grace Reeves, B. S., 1915, Hood College, Frederick, Md.

Elizabeth Roberts, B. S., 1915, Hathaway-Brown School for Girls, Cleveland, O.

Amy Gott, B. S., 1915, William Smith College, Geneva, N. Y.

Henrietta Gregory, B. S., 1912, Supervisor in Passaic, N. J.

Mabel Lutes, A. M., 1915, Technical High School, Springfield, Mass.

OTHER APPOINTMENTS

Gladys Smith, B. S., 1915, assistant in chemistry in State Normal and Industrial School, Greensboro, N. C.

Gertrude Longley, assistant in department of household chemistry, Teachers College.

Katherine A. Pritchett, director of home economics extension work in Maryland Agricultural College.

Julia Pierpont, B. S., 1915, Delaware Industrial School for Girls, Wilmington, Del.

Sarah Pettit, B. S., 1911, extension work for Erie County Farm Bureau, Buffalo, N. Y.

A. Grace Johnson, B. S., 1915, will have charge of home economics at Johns Hopkins Summer School, and in the fall domestic science at Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Ore.

Lucile Wheeler, assistant professor of home economics, University of Minnesota.

Margery Lynch, housekeeper and instructor in cookery, Miss Head's School, Berkeley, Cal.

Helen C. Havens, B. S., 1915, manager of lunch room and teacher of domestic science, at Brooklyn Heights Seminary, N. Y.

Elizabeth Hopkins, B. S., 1915, cottage mother, Temporary Home for Little Girls, Stamford, Conn.

Hazeltine Church, cafeteria of Y. W. C. A., Brooklyn, N. Y.

Helen Bishop, B. S., 1915, housekeeper, Fraternity House, Baltimore, Md.

Miriam Cohn, housekeeper, Jewish Sisterhood, Newark, N. J.

Cornelia Simonson, domestic science and laundry at College of Industrial Arts, Denton, Tex.

Bertha Wheeler, manager of cafeteria, Lake Placid Club in the Adirondacks, N. Y.

Beulah Spilsbury, millinery and costume design, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

Beulah Hurley, textiles, book binding and elementary industrial arts, State Normal School, Newark, N. J.

Anna McMillan, B. S., 1915, assistant in the department of textiles and clothing, Teachers College.

Eleanor Hadsell, B. S., 1915, fine arts and manual training, Graham Hall School, Minneapolis, Minn.

Katherine H. Baxter, music director in Grand Rapids high school.

Frank J. Ostermann, shop work and drawing, Riverdale School for Boys, New York City.

August K. Eccles, industrial arts, State Normal School, Heredia, Costa Rica.

Mrs. Marion Treat Shafer is directing an interesting piece of work in institutional administration. She is in charge of the restaurant of the National Bank of Commerce of New York City, where 500 men take their lunches daily. She says, " I can only hope for all Teachers College graduates that they find positions as congenial as mine."

Miss Jane Cochrane, B. S., 1914, who has been assistant to the Dean of Women at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor., has received the appointment as Acting Dean of Women for the 1915 summer session at that University.

Miss Emma Winslow of the Household Administration Department, has been appointed to a responsible position in the Charity Organization Society in New York City. She will investigate food conditions and budgets among the poorer families of the city, the information to be used in bettering living conditions among such families.